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A STUDY OF THE CHANGES IN THE FRENCH CATHOLIC
SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN QUEBEC FROM
SEPTEMBER 1959 TO JUNE 1963

by

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A THESIS

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "A Study of the Changes in the French Catholic System of Education in Quebec From September 1959 to June 1963" submitted by Joseph Rosaire Philippe Dupuis in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

ABSTRACT

There has been a great deal of public discussion concerning changes in the educational system of the Province of Quebec since the death of Premier Maurice Duplessis. This discussion has been sufficient to warrant a detailed study of the situation in an attempt to discover just what has actually happened in Quebec education.

The primary source of material for this study consisted of Department of Education Reports, newspapers (Le Devoir) and reviews (Relations, L'Enseignement and Le Magazine Macleans) published between September, 1959, and June, 1963. This material was examined for indications of changes in practice and policy as related to educational authorities, students and teachers.

It was discovered that there was a shift of power in educational affairs from the Provincial Secretary to the Minister of Youth, with the Minister using his influence to implement better coordination and planning. Educational legislation enacted after 1959 indicated a desire for objectivity, universality and the removal of undesirable political interference. It was also clear that with the establishment of a Royal Commission, and the "preaching trips" of the Minister of Youth throughout the province, the government intended to put educational matters on a more democratic basis.

Increased grants, extension of the franchise in the election of school commissioners and greater freedom from political interference were among the beneficial changes made at the local level. The local school boards were made much more functional with the initiation of overall planning and centralization.

There were a number of major developments affecting students, such as the new compulsory attendance law, student allowances, free textbooks, and an increase in the number and value of bursaries. Primary and secondary school curricula were remodelled in an attempt to accommodate the different needs of individual students.

Additional evidence of a new trend in Quebec education was found in the implementation of measures intended to raise the status of teachers. The centralization of normal schools, higher standards of certification, increased bursaries, automatic membership in the teachers' association, and the amendment of Article 232 of the School Law considerably reinforced the position of the teaching profession.

The scope of this study was such that no concerted attempt was made to discover all the motivating forces underlying these changes in Quebec education. However, the available evidence suggested that the government, with the Church, prompted by the people, have brought about an educational revolution in Quebec.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since the death of Quebec Premier Maurice Duplessis, the various mass communication media of the province have quite frequently appeared to be open forums for a great many politicians, journalists, and educators, to speak of a dynamic renewal, a fundamental change, and even a complete revolution in Quebec. Within a few days after Paul Sauvé became premier, a provincial cabinet minister observed that government was "no longer the work of one man alone, but that of a team."¹ Two years later the editor of Le Devoir, André Laurendeau, wrote:

After the long Duplessistic sleep, the 1959-60 session was a relief. Putting aside the party question, it is interesting to note that the legislation passed this year has accelerated the renaissance.. There are indications the Liberals are continuing and improving the work begun by Paul Sauvé, while the Union Nationale is returning to Duplessism.²

Relations spoke of ". . .the winter of the past regime and the spring of the new one."³ The general view seemed to be that the new spirit in Quebec was not so much due to a political party change as it was to the death of a single individual who had a sincere but nevertheless dictatorial and narrow view of what should constitute French Canada.

¹News item in Le Devoir, September 19, 1959, p. 1.

²Editorial in Le Devoir, June 13, 1961, p. 4.

³Jacques Cousineau, s.j., "La liberté aux instituteurs," Relations, 231 (March, 1960), p. 68.

General Purpose

What has really happened in Quebec? Were all the statements about improvement, change, renewal, and revolution merely part of a political debate in which a few vocal elements in the province were paying lip-service to the idea of progress, or were there concrete changes in Quebec after the death of Duplessis?

More specifically, and this is the object of this study, can we find evidence to indicate a change, or a new trend in Quebec education since 1959? Time alone will supply the final answer, but a much clearer picture of the actual situation should come to light after a close examination and comparison of education in Quebec before and after September 1959. This general problem can be broken down into the following questions.

Sub-Purposes

1. Has the formal structure of the system changed? Has there been a shift in powers? What is the state of local powers, finance, centralization?

2. What improvements, if any, have there been for the students? Has there been a move toward a more democratic system of enrollment, or are many high schools still just for the elite? Has the program of studies changed in such a way as to meet the needs of a changing and expanding world?

3. What changes, if any, have there been in the training of teachers, and in their status?

4. Who was responsible for any changes? the government? the church? various societies? the people?

Limitations of the Study

This study has been limited mainly to those features of Quebec education which distinguished it from the systems found in other Canadian provinces, and has been concerned primarily with the French Catholic Public School system. The importance of this principal element of the Quebec school system lies in the fact that it must serve a population of more than five million.

Also included in the whole scope of Quebec education are the English Catholic and English Protestant systems. These, however, include only about ten per cent of the population, and are very similar to the pattern followed in other provinces. French Protestant education in Quebec is just beginning, and represents less than three thousand students. Classical colleges are private institutions, and are not taken into account in this study except in cases where there have been attempts to bring them under government control and include them in the public system. Technical and professional schools were also excluded as they are under the responsibility of different ministers or societies, with, of course, the same exception as noted in regard to classical colleges.

Sources of Data

The principal sources of data and reference material used in this study are: the official reports of the meetings of the Department of Public Instruction and of the Catholic Committee of Public Instruction; the monthly paper of La Corporation des Instituteurs catholiques de la

province de Québec (Quebec Catholic Teacher Corporation); the daily newspaper Le Devoir; and two monthly magazines, Relations and Le Magazine Maclean. Each of these publications was chosen for its own value, and also for the importance each has attached to the question of education.

Department of Public Instruction Reports, and Catholic Committee of Public Instruction Reports give the official reports of all laws, regulations, and directions which rule French Catholic education in Quebec.

L'Enseignement is the official journal of La Corporation des Instituteurs catholiques de la province de Québec. Anything related to education in the French Catholic branch of the Department, including the application of the laws and regulations throughout the province, is correlated and analyzed each month by this paper. The value of this publication was pointed out by the Educational Courier, the official journal of the Ontario Teachers' Federation.

One of the most remarkable teachers' magazines on the continent . . . is the journal of the French Catholic teachers in Quebec. . . . Since its foundation a decade ago, its circulation has grown from 5,000 to 35,000. This is an infallible test of whether the teachers believe the journal is serving their interests. The exciting story of the growth of this exciting journal is a large part of the story of the growth of teacher organization in Quebec. If big educational reforms are now under way in that province, can we forget the share of L'Enseignement in bringing this about? Here is a powerful example of how a teachers' magazine can be influential in changing the course of events.⁴

Le Devoir appeared to be one of the most valuable, accurate and objective of all the French Canadian newspapers. It is a political,

⁴News item in The Educational Courier, January-February, 1962, pp. 63-65.

intellectual, and Catholic daily paper without any particular political affiliations, which accepts a wide range of thinkers from atheists to strong Catholics, including socialists, capitalists, liberals and conservatives. The following statements concerning Le Devoir are representative of comments made by other journalistic organs.

Many people, and we are among them, are often in disagreement with the ideas expressed in Le Devoir. . .but this extraordinary free tribune is effectively. . .expressing our people's state of soul. . . .Le Devoir is necessary for French-Canadians.⁵

Le Devoir remains in the best tradition of Catholic journalism . . .for this it must profess a complete liberty in regard to any external coercion (State, political parties, money power or group power, etc.) also any internal influence (passions, presumptions). . . .This liberty must even include freedom from the Church, meaning the powers of the Church; hierarchy, religious communities. . . .Then Le Devoir remains the unreplaceable Devoir according to the word of Canon Lionel Groulx.⁶

Relations is a monthly journal published by the French Canadian Jesuits of Montreal. It is a source for analysis of trends and new laws in education. The ideas found in the Relations can be regarded as Quebec Roman Catholic thought, although these ideas are not official Church thought.

Le Magazine Maclean, owned by Maclean-Hunter Publications, an English Canadian organization, nevertheless represents French Canadian ideals, or more correctly, the left wing element of French Canadian thinkers. Le Magazine Maclean provides the best insight into the educational work of Le Mouvement laïque de Langue française (The French Language Lay Movement), an important and influential non-government force

⁵C. Langlois, La Patrie du Dimanche, quoted by Le Devoir, February 8, 1960, p. 4.

⁶Georges Robitaille, s.j., "Un cinquantenaire réussi," Relations, 231 (March, 1960), p. 66.

in Quebec.

There are, of course, many other publications that could have been employed in this study, but they are essentially of the same type as those which were chosen. The papers selected do not present the whole Quebec educational dialogue, but they are representative of the largest range of educational ideas in French Canadian society.

Analysis of Data

All the issues of the publications chosen were dated from September 1959 to June 1963. Anything having a relation to a change in education was noted. Facts were of primary interest, but attention was also given to ideas, and particularly trends in ideas that may provide a foundation for concrete action.

The data were collected and grouped according to the first three questions suggested in the sub-purposes. The final question regarding responsibility is dealt with in the conclusion of this study. This is done because of the sociological knowledge required to deal with such an aspect of human behavior, and because of the non-scientific nature of the findings.

The sources of data were divided into three categories: primary, secondary, and accessory. The primary sources consisted of the official reports of the meetings of the Department of Public Instruction and of the Catholic Committee of Public Instruction. The secondary sources, namely Le Devoir and L'Enseignement, provided an explanation and commentary on the regulations contained in the primary sources. Relations and Le Magazine Maclean were used as accessory sources because, although they did

not contain relevant facts, they did provide a great number of the ideas and trends commented on in this study.

Organization of the Thesis

In order to better understand the most recent developments in Quebec education, Chapter II is devoted to a brief historical outline of education in the province up to 1959. The concluding paragraphs of this chapter summarize the whole system as it was in 1959.

Chapter III will study the formal structures; with this field being broken down into the categories of central and local authority. Under central authority the subjects to be considered are: shift of powers, new policies, and the Parent Commission. The three principal areas of importance under the heading of local authority are: finance, planning and centralization, and democratization.

Chapter IV investigates those changes which would affect the student population. Attention is divided between school attendance and the school program. The study of school attendance is concerned with those laws which enforce attendance, and those which encourage attendance. The study of the school program deals with primary and secondary schools, and also with teaching aids.

Chapter V is a report on those changes which affected teachers, including their training, working conditions, and remuneration. Improvements in facilities, basic programs, and advanced training are dealt with under the heading of training; while the topic of working conditions includes professional status, tenure, teaching load, and the status of lay teachers. The area of remuneration also includes a consideration of

the retirement pension plan.

Chapter VI consists of a summary of the findings of this study, as well as those conclusions and comments which it seemed necessary to make.

There are two appendices. The first consists of the original French texts of the quotations used in this work. The other appendix contains the thirty-three recommendations found in the first part of the Parent Commission report. This appendix is included in an attempt to provide a well-reasoned forecast of what may well be the outcome of the present evolution in Quebec education.

CHAPTER II

THE QUEBEC SCHOOL SYSTEM TO 1959

Any attempt to study human events or institutions requires that they be seen within some sort of context. Of course, the greater is the understanding of the general context, the greater will be the understanding of the particular event or institution to be studied. Sir Michael Sadler made this point clear as it applies to the study of systems of education.

In studying. . .systems of education we should not forget that the things outside the schools matter even more than the things inside the schools, and govern and interpret the things inside. . .A national system of education is a living thing, the outcome of forgotten struggles and difficulties and of battles long ago. It has in it some of the secret workings of national life. It reflects, while seeking to remedy, the failings of national character. By instinct it often lays special emphasis on those parts of training which the national character particularly needs. No less by instinct, it often shrinks from laying stress on points concerning which bitter dissensions have arisen in former periods of national history.⁷

However, in a work of this nature, it is simply not possible to deal in detail with the evolution and development of the whole French Canadian culture, nevertheless, it still must be made clear that behind the growth of the French Catholic system of education in Quebec, lie the traditions of a people, French in origin, small in numbers, and for many hundreds of years surrounded by millions of Anglo-Saxon Protestants. Thus isolated, the people turned in on themselves, continually fearing the loss of their characteristics, and constantly reminded by their leaders that they

⁷Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education (London: third edition, Routledge and Kegan Paul Limited, 1958), p. 3.

must be faithful to themselves under any circumstances and at any price.

In much the same manner as a grasp of the total evolution of the French Canadian culture facilitates an understanding of the development of the French Catholic System of education in Quebec, it is necessary that some attention be paid to the evolution of this system if we are to fully understand the changes in Quebec education since 1959. Moreover, it would be virtually impossible to evaluate Quebec education since 1959 without this prior knowledge, as any change in a specific system of education in order to be a step forward, and of any real value to a society, must be made with a regard for national and cultural traditions.

This view is substantiated by Arthur H. Moehlman:

Any organisms which destroy their environment eventually destroy themselves, those organisms survive which cooperate in creatively modifying their environment for their mutual benefit.⁸

With all due consideration of the complexities involved in fully understanding the French Canadian culture, and the education system which was the result of that culture, and with an equal consideration for the actual objectives of this paper, the attempt to be made here to trace the educational history of French Catholic Quebec, will have to be considered a review of the highlights, rather than the history of this educational system.

There are, of course, a great many dangers involved in such a simplification, but, as has been argued, this risk must be run. The method will consist of a delimitation of the main trends or periods;

⁸ Arthur H. Moehlman, Comparative Educational Systems (Washington: D.C.: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1963), p. 11.

specific points related to this paper will be underlined; concluding with a summary of the operation of the system as it existed in 1959.

Historical Outline

The French Catholic system of education in Quebec has evolved through six main periods, the first of which will be referred to as "The French Regime." This period, dating from 1608 to 1760, was characterized by the almost exclusive activity of the Roman Catholic Church in the field of public education. The education of the people was, for the most part, the result of the initiative of the Church and its religious orders. "The Supreme authority in education was the bishop,"⁹ according to L. P. Audet. School regulations, programs, and teachers were under the control of the Bishop of Quebec.

Trying to find the role of the secular powers in regard to Education, Audet discovered that "the state's actions were rather discrete but the Governors and Intendants did give support to the pastors of New France."¹⁰ This secular support consisted mainly of financial assistance given, not according to any statute or regular formula, but simply at the discretion of the authorities. And, this financial assistance usually amounted to little more than land concessions, which at times provided the Church with some measure of revenue. Royal subsidies were sometimes generous, but dangerously irregular.

At the conclusion of this first period in the development of the

⁹Louis-Philippe Audet, Le Système scolaire de la province de Québec (2^e édition, Québec, Les Editions de l'Erable, 1951), II, p. 53.

¹⁰Ibid., note, p. 57.

French Catholic system of education, in Quebec, there were some thirty elementary schools for boys, three of which offered practical training, one college, and two seminaries for secondary education, and about fifteen convents for girls. As a point of interest, in 1693 Bishop Laval, possibly anticipating the present century, established what may best be described as "vocational schools," with which he associated six annual scholarships for boys "of good morals and adapted to manual labour."

The second period to be dealt with in this brief historical survey of Quebec education began about 1760, and concluded in 1824. This era was ushered in with the Battle of the Plains of Abraham, and the subsequent British influence in Quebec. The period was characterized by the proclamation establishing the Royal Institution for the Advancement of Learning.

During the first thirty or forty years under the English regime, the educational system of Quebec saw few formal changes. Although the Church of England was officially charged with education, the Roman Catholic Church was allowed to keep its schools. However, because of a shortage of revenue, the Catholics had to curtail their educational efforts. There were three principal causes for this lack of revenue: the English Crown confiscated the Jesuit and Recollet estates; there was a total lack of financial assistance from the government, and the French Canadians themselves were simply not conditioned to tackle the task of organizing and financing schools.

There were but a few institutions that were able to carry on during these discouraging times. Outside of the larger centers there was no instruction whatsoever for the people. This period was so poor,

educationally speaking, that historians have described it as the "dark ages" of Quebec.

The need for education, and the desire to Anglicise the Québécois were regarded by the predominantly British authorities as two pressing problems; and a government-supported public school system appeared to be the solution to both problems. An inquiry committee, established in 1787 under the chairmanship of William Smith, Chief of Justice, suggested that a system of free elementary schools be established in every parish, a secondary school for each county, and a university in Quebec City. The whole system was to be governed by both the Anglican and Roman Catholic bishops in cooperation with a number of lay people. The laymen were balanced in number between Catholics and Anglicans, and were not necessarily in proportion to the actual numerical strength of each denomination. The project was given the approval of the legislative assembly, but was generally opposed by the people of the colony, and by the English home government. As a result, the project never got off the ground.

However, in 1801, the English Parliament allowed the Quebec Legislative Assembly to put in action the "Act for the Establishment of Free Schools and the Advancement of Learning in this Province." Under this new law the government was given power to appoint trustees in each parish and county when a majority of the citizens petitioned for a school and were willing to pay for it. The government also had the power to appoint teachers and establish their salaries. However, there was one feature of the new law which proved to be very unpopular. Thirteen of the seventeen members appointed to the administrative board of the system were Protestant. As a result, few schools were established by the French majority,

and even among the English little interest was shown in the schools. The total number of schools established never exceeded eighty, twelve of which were French. Realizing that the failure of past systems of education was due, to a large extent, to the lack of local interest in educational affairs, the government worked out legislation which gave local populations a much greater degree of power in educational matters.

The third period extended between 1824 and 1841, and was characterized by an increase in the autonomy of local communities in setting up and administering their own schools. In 1824, the previous legislation was repealed, and replaced by the "Fabrique Act,"¹¹ which empowered every Fabrique to establish its own schools. Each Fabrique was permitted to spend one-quarter of its revenue for education, and also was granted authority to employ its own teachers and set the course of study. However, due to the apathy of the people, the low revenue of the Fabrique, and the lack of government financial assistance, the Act was not very effective, and by 1830 there were only sixty-eight schools in the whole of Quebec.

This state of affairs prompted the government to take another look at education, with the result that the year 1829 saw the passage of the act "For the Encouragement of Elementary Education." This new legislation provided subsidies to school boards which the government considered to be "good schools." This same act called for the election of five trustees

¹¹ Canon Emmett Carter in The Catholic Public Schools of Quebec (Toronto and Montreal, W. J. Gage Ltd., 1957), p. 35, gives this note: A "fabrique" in Quebec law (no translation) is the moral and juridical person composed of the parish priest and the wardens having the responsibility of the administration of the temporal goods of a parish.

to manage the affairs of each local school. There were a number of minor additions to the act in 1832, and then, after its two-year duration expired in 1834, the act was given another two-year tenure without any changes. The results of this piece of legislation were quite encouraging. By 1835 there were 1,372 schools in the province; and considering that these grants were given only to what the government judged to be "good schools," the act appeared to be a powerful tool to help improve the general level of education in Quebec. But, in 1836, the act was not extended, government grants were discontinued, and, as could be expected, there was a rapid decline in the number of schools.

The trend toward the establishment of a solid public system of education was reversed, and during the rebellious and troubled years 1837 to 1839, which brought this period to a close, the education picture in Quebec returned to something which closer resembled the English than the French or American systems. Quebec education was once again a combination of powerful local authority in the public schools and a strong system of private schools.

If the two preceding periods can be regarded as the first feeble steps toward the establishment of a public system of education, then the period beginning in 1841 may be regarded as that in which giant strides were made toward such a goal. The Buller Study of 1839, and the Modelet Letters of 1840, were the principal sources of inspiration leading to the "Educational Act" of 1841. This piece of legislation brought about four important developments. A certain degree of central authority was created with the appointment of a Superintendent of Education. Local authority had its status clarified and its powers made more efficient.

A program of school finance was drawn up which saw the costs divided between the central and local authorities. Finally, by granting the right of dissent to a religious minority, the concept of denominationalism was firmly instituted.

At first, the role of the Superintendent of Education was rather ineffectual due to the lack of any real power; it was more of an advisory than an executive position. Laws enacted in 1845, and especially in 1846, did a great deal to overcome some of this deficiency. But, even then, the office of Superintendent had no voice in the selection of teachers, curriculum, or textbooks; and further, that office suffered from an acute shortage of staff. But, as is the case with most human institutions, survival depends on expansion, and a series of laws greatly extended the power of the position. In 1851, the appointment of regional supervisors placed a much larger staff at the disposal of the Superintendent. In 1856, his office was aggrandized with the appointment of a Council of Education, and he was also given control of the normal schools, of teacher certification, and of school board finances.

The educational acts of 1841 and 1846 led to a reorganization of school financing. It was in this period that the principle of dividing the costs of school operation between the central and local authorities was developed. But this did not happen without a great deal of opposition, which was especially true in regard to the act of 1846. That minor but vocal element of the population which was not conditioned to paying taxes presented the chief stumbling block to these laws. Its efforts did result in the closing of a number of schools, and the burning of several others. Historically, this episode is known as "La Guerre Des

Eteignoirs"¹² (the War of the Candlesnuffers). It took a tremendous effort by both the secular and religious authorities before this attitude was finally overcome and the principle of cost-sharing became fully accepted.

The act of 1841 established public schools in each locality, but also granted a religious minority the right to set up its own schools. Thus the principle of separate schools was firmly founded by law and has continued through to the present day. With the exception of those in Quebec City and Montreal, all schools were to be public or common, except, as mentioned above, when there was a sufficiently large minority wishing to organize and set up its own separate school. However, in Montreal and Quebec City, a dual school system was enacted by law; schools were either Catholic or Protestant, with no other religious group being allowed to have its own separate school.

The close of the preceding period saw lower Canada with fairly well-established local school authorities, but with a shaky central authority. A new period beginning in 1867 brought about the development of a functionally powerful authority. This period has been referred to by the Parent Commission as "La cristallisation du système scolaire."

The British North America Act placed all educational responsibility in the hands of the provincial governments. With the abolition of the position of superintendent of education, having jurisdiction over all

¹²Carter, op. cit., p. 40, gives this note: The term defies one translation. . . .The term éteignoirs in French has a particular metaphorical significance. One who is always "agin," one who discourages, who opposes, is often characterized as an eteignoir, because his role, apparently, is to put out the fire of progress.

education prior to confederation, each province had to establish its own educational hierarchy, and in 1868 a ministry of education was established in Quebec. Then in 1869 legislation was enacted reorganizing the council of education. This law called for the formation of two committees within the Council; one Catholic and the other Protestant. Each of these committees was required to organize its own schools according to the principles of their respective faiths. Moreover, each committee was given the privilege of carrying the religious denominationalism "permitted within the council" all the way up to the departmental level; in other words, at the convenience of either group it was possible for two completely autonomous systems of education to be established in Quebec. As often happens, what is at first merely within the realm of the possible soon becomes a matter of fact, and the possibility of two separate and distinct systems of education in Quebec became a legally established fact in 1875. This, however, was more of a negative than a positive legality.

The legislation of 1875 abolished the position of Minister of Education (established in 1868), replacing him with a Superintendent. This Superintendent although having a more or less symbolic authority over both systems at the level of the Council of Education had real jurisdiction only over the system controlled by the religious denomination of which he was also a member. Under such legislation each committee was naturally regarded as being absolute and carried out its affairs in that fashion. This was amply demonstrated by the fact that the two committees went for a period of fifty-two years (1908 to 1960) without a joint meeting.

This period, beginning with Confederation, established many

precedents which remained in force until at least 1960. However, there were a number of developments beginning in 1907 which were of sufficient significance to mark that year as the start of the concluding period in this brief historical survey. This last period can be considered one in which educational services expanded to fill the new needs of an evolving society. The period was ushered in with the opening of two technical schools in Montreal and Quebec City. Similar schools were opened in Shawinigan in 1911; Trois-Rivières in 1918; and Hull in 1919. The establishment of these schools constituted a novel innovation in Quebec education as they were the creation of the Provincial Secretary rather than of the Department of Education. Many other specialized schools were opened; Ecole du Meuble, Ecole des Arts Graphiques, Ecole des Textiles, Ecole de L'Automobile to name just a few. In addition to the entry of the Provincial Secretary in the field of education, other governmental departments also got into the act; the Ministers of Fisheries, Agriculture, Forestry, Labour, Industry, Youth, and Social Welfare found themselves doubling as Headmasters.

This same period also saw a re-thinking of the problems of teacher training. Prior to 1937, teachers were certified by their local Bureau of Examiners, but by 1953, through a number of Departmental decisions, a centralized inspection of, and examinations for, student teachers, was developed. During this period, the program of teacher training was expanded until, in 1953, it became possible to earn a university degree while obtaining a provincial certificate at the normal schools. After more than fifty years of debate on the issue of compulsory attendance the matter was settled in 1943 with the passage of legislation making

compulsory attendance "compulsory." Changes exemplified by the passage of this law resulted in a tremendous increase in the student population, and the subsequent problems of trying to make the old one-room school concepts and facilities cope with the increase. The larger centralized school located in each parish was the result of attempts to find the solution to this problem.

A royal commission on constitutional problems was set up in 1953. More than half of the two hundred fifty briefs submitted to the commission dealt with education. Even though this commission was intended to deal with constitutional problems its report simply could not overlook the insistence of the Quebec population on the issue of education, and accordingly the commission made a number of recommendations. These recommendations called for the recognition of the right of every person for a proper education, the necessity for the clergy to surrender its educational prerogatives to the laymen, the creation of a school financial bureau, the need of giving statutory bursaries to registered students, and the setting up of a well-organized provincial department of education.

The System in 1959

The whole field of education in Quebec by 1959 was the concern of practically every government department or ministry in the province. Each ministry had its own schools for the purpose of training the specialists required for its own particular field. There was no relationship between the educational aims of these various ministries and those of the Department of Education; the Department having an interest only in the primary and secondary public schools, and with the normal schools. This state of

affairs left a large segment of Quebec education, namely the secondary and superior, in the hands of private interests. The Department of Education itself was administered by a superintendent who was responsible to the Provincial Secretary. This superintendent supervised public education and controlled the distribution of educational grants.

The Ministry of Youth operated schools of specialized training, institutes of technology, special institutes, and trade schools. The Ministry of Social Welfare was concerned with the training of practical nurses and child nurses, and supported orphanages and institutes for juvenile delinquents. The Ministry of Agriculture maintained regional intermediate agricultural schools, and provided financial support for veterinary schools, the dairy schools, and the agricultural orphanages. There were also apprenticeship centers under the Ministry of Labour; schools for forest preservation, forest rangers, and sawmill operators under the Ministry of Lands and Forests; a fishery school under the Ministry of Hunting and Fishing; and a school for hotel keepers under the Ministry of Industry and Commerce.

The local school boards had always enjoyed a great degree of independence, but the school population explosion with its associated problems, particularly those of a financial nature, considerably weakened the position of these boards in their relation to the provincial authorities, which resulted in many instances of political abuse and interference. The status of the small school units was becoming more difficult to justify in the face of new demands for widespread education. As a result, most of the one or two classroom units were centralized within a parish or municipality. However, for the most part, centralization was limited

to elementary schools. At the secondary level, political, religious and community selfishness made centralization virtually impossible. Local school board members were elected exclusively from and by property owners.

The traditional dual education system inherited from Europe, although challenged, remained unchanged. A few public schools did offer the first years of the classical program that had previously been the monopoly of the private institutions. However, the majority of students, due to low family income, were unable to attend a classical college, and hence it was very difficult for them to go on to university. The primary school program did not make allowances for any differences in interests or aptitudes among students; every student was expected to take the same seven-year program. The secondary public schools offered a reasonably diversified program of options, but most of these options were limited in their possibilities for further study.

There was a total of more than one hundred normal schools for teacher training, but some of these schools contained less than two dozen students, and most lacked proper training facilities. Certification was almost universal with ninety per cent of the teachers possessing a provincial certificate. The legislation which made strike action by teachers illegal, and which denied arbitration to the majority of teachers, was detrimental to their status, as was the infamous Article 232 of the School Law, which gave school boards the right to dismiss a teacher without any stated reason. The traditional view that certain positions in the teaching profession should be the monopoly of members of the clergy also had a demoralizing effect. In addition, it was generally felt that teachers were underpaid in comparison to members of other groups having a similar degree of training.

CHAPTER III

CHANGES IN THE FORMAL STRUCTURE

Central Authority

Shift of powers. On July 6, 1960, a few days after his election as Premier of Quebec, Jean Lesage announced changes in the province's educational administration. The Minister of Youth, who previously was responsible only for technical schools was to assume responsibility for the Department of Public Instruction, and, in addition, would relieve the Provincial Secretary of the financial administration of public schools. More than a simple shift of cabinet duties was intended by this maneuver. The government actually sought to unite all aspects of Quebec education under the authority of a single minister. This long-range objective was intimated by Paul Gérin-Lajoie, the new Minister of Youth, when he delivered his maiden address to the Catholic Committee of the Council of Public Instruction.

More than one hundred years ago, the Council of Education was established in an effort to avoid absolute government control of education. The state itself placed the council in charge of the actual instruction given by public institutions at that time. Our aim then, as later, was to keep this council free from political interference. We have habitually emphasized this original intent of our education system, without having due regard to also point out the fact that educational administration remains under government control. Surely it is this attitude, perfectly understandable in its historical sense, that obscures the fundamental distinction between the academic and the administrative directions of our school system. . . . It is within such a differentiation that the question of placing one ministry in sole charge of the administrative aspects of education has been debated for a number of years. This question is primarily one of administrative co-ordination, and one which, because of the great increase in number and scope of educational services within the government over a

period of many years, has long required a solution. A coordinated administrative policy, as well as an academic policy, is essential if we are to be successful in our efforts to rationally prepare our province to face up to its educational responsibilities.¹³

Paul Gérin-Lajoie was able to draw at least a theoretical distinction between administration and instruction in education, but at the same time, by holding to the view that "the state must take the initiative in regard to educational policies rather than be content with the role of passive coordinator,"¹⁴ he considered these two aspects of education to be closely interrelated in practice. It is entirely possible to suppose that M. Gérin-Lajoie saw no other role for government except that of paymaster if it was the independent Department of Public Instruction which held the real power (insofar as education is concerned). It is also quite possible to assume that he, as the representative of government, was not always ready to pay the bills without having some knowledge of, and some say in, the spending of government money, especially when education represents one-third of the total budget. Such assumptions can be supported by citing the well-publicized "norms question," which provides an excellent example of the government's attempt to play a more active role in education.

On March 12, 1963, Joseph L. Page, the Deputy Minister of Youth issued a directive to all school board members in the province which stated the statistical norms to be followed in establishing the number of

¹³Province de Québec, Comité catholique du conseil de l'Instruction publique, Procès-verbal de la séance du 28 septembre 1960 (Québec, 1960), pp. 9-11.

¹⁴News item in Le Devoir, December 11, 1961, p. 9.

periods a teacher must teach in a week, and the number of students each classroom must contain. The Deputy Minister also dealt with the actual organization of the school by determining the number of classrooms to be allotted to a principal, and by suggesting that vice-principals be replaced by instructional department heads. M. Page concluded his directive by stating:

It is very important that the funds given to the boards of education, either through assessment or by government grants, be used in the most economical and efficient manner possible. The employees of this ministry will check the application of these norms when studying the school-board budgets for the 1963-64 fiscal year.¹⁵

This case is an excellent illustration of how the government can become very much involved in the purely academic field by pursuing a purely administrative policy. The theoretical distinction between administration and instruction is difficult to apply with any real meaning to the practical problem of correlating the efficient use of educational funds with the tasks of a teacher or the organizational structure of the school.

André Laurendeau, the editor of Le Devoir, attempted to allay any fears that the announcement of the government may constitute an unwarranted, and possibly an unhealthy, intrusion into the field of education.

Will people be afraid to see the state become more involved with the instructional aspects of education? Such an attitude would really be unreasonable. The State has in fact been working in this field for a long time. This work has been done with a great deal of secrecy, and its influence was often clandestine. Through the device of giving grants, a particular regime is able to infiltrate a system unnoticed. This, I think, is a dangerous process as its ascendancy is difficult to understand, to evaluate, and to judge. On the other hand, a regime which makes its intentions clear will be a better

¹⁵ News item in Le Devoir, March 16, 1963, p. 1.

regime as it will more efficiently preserve the educators' individual liberty.¹⁶

New policies. The transfer of responsibility from the Provincial Secretary to the Minister of Youth, and the obvious intention of the latter to do more than merely act as the coordinator of administration, was the principal cause of the new trend in the educational policies of Quebec. Here we will limit our study of new policies to general trends, saving for subsequent chapters, a more precise study of the various aspects of such policies as they affected school boards, students, and teachers.

The first important trend, both in time and in intrinsic value, is to be found in the nature of the laws passed during the 1959-60 session of the Quebec Legislature. The Premier at that time, Paul Sauvé, referred to this particular sitting as the "educational session."

The essential nature or characteristic of the legislation passed during this session was that it was universal, statutory, and automatic.

The laws were universal in the sense that no aspect of Quebec education was forgotten. The problem of federal aid to universities was solved; the normal schools, the family institutes, and the classical colleges received an increase in aid of almost three hundred per cent, and the school boards were granted ten million dollars above the figure for the previous year.

The statutory nature of the legislation can be seen in the fact that each board received grants from one hundred to fifteen hundred

¹⁶Editorial in Le Devoir, July 8, 1960, p. 4.

dollars per classroom (group of twenty-five pupils) based on an objectively established scale, and each independent school was entitled to a grant according to the nature of its courses and the number of students attending courses.

The laws were automatic in that they did away with the exceptional cases. There were no longer colleges accredited by the university which were not on the list of institutions which received grants. An institution fulfilling the requirements as defined by the law, was automatically given a grant.

The following statements further illustrate this new trend:

The present government has set up and made law the most important program for education ever presented in Quebec. It would seem that this legislation may be summarized in three words: universality, generosity, and regularity. . . .It establishes grants according to precise norms and fixes scales which insures regularity, leaves less room for arbitrariness, and decreases the necessity of pilgrimages to Quebec.¹⁷

A comparison of the new situation with the old shows a remarkable improvement. It is an improvement in many ways, but particularly so because of the government's expressed respect of the liberty of the institutions. The subsidies. . .have almost the same distinctive character; they are statutory. . .automatic. . .require no political friendship, no patronage, no underground influence, and the amount of the grants is ruled only by an established scale. The arbitrary method is now suppressed. We particularly congratulate Mr. Yves Prevost, the Provincial secretary. It would seem that this is primarily his personal work.¹⁸

Another step along the road to regularity was taken when the government decided, after the job of administering educational finances was given to the Minister of Youth, that in the future, the boards of

¹⁷Editorial in Relations, 231 (March, 1960), p. 57.

¹⁸Editorial in Le Devoir, March 10, 1960, p. 4.

education had to deal directly with the Department of Public Instruction or with the Ministry of Youth, rather than through their respective representatives in the legislature or through the party patron. This new policy was applied in such a way that

Such paragraphs as the one following disappeared from letters written by the Department. 'Under the recommendations of So and So (Deputy or patron), the Government of Union Nationale is happy to inform you that a grant has been conceded. . . .' the tradition being that cheques to the school boards are sent to the ministerial representative, or sometimes even to the patron.¹⁹

A new precedent in Quebec educational traditions was established during the weekend of February 15, 1963, when the Minister of Youth travelled to La Sarre, in the county of Abitibi-Ouest, to explain government policy to the twenty-one member boards of the region's new "Régionale" (consolidated school). The minister met separately with teachers, parish priests and bishops, and board members for the purpose of giving, as he said,

. . . To the Minister and his close collaborators the opportunity of on-the-spot verification of the real conditions in which the Quebec system of education is developing in order that this may be taken into account. . . in legislative and administrative decisions; and also to explain to the people of the region the meaning and consequences of school reformation, particularly the development of secondary schools at the regional level.²⁰

The Parent Commission. Early in 1961 the government decided to allow the people of the province to express their views on education through the establishment of a Royal Commission. The law creating the

¹⁹ Editorial in Le Devoir, August 10, 1960, p. 4. (We translate "patroneux" as "patron." This word means: the man who locally represents the party.)

²⁰ News item in Le Devoir, February 18, 1963, p. 1.

Commission was passed on March 24, 1961, and at that time the government announced the principal reasons for this action.

Due to the many problems at all levels of instruction it is important that a Royal Commission be charged with the task of conducting a complete and impartial study of the instructional situation in the province. The necessity of such a study was pointed out in 1956 by the Royal Commission on Constitutional Problems. Since this recommendation was made in 1956, it has been followed by numerous demands from other sources for such a study.²¹

After the necessary legislation was passed by the legislature, it was left to the Minister of Youth to carry out the organizational details of the commission. Its eight members were appointed by the Provincial Cabinet on April 21, 1961. Chaired by Monsignor Alphonse-Marie Parent, Vice-Rector of Laval University, the commission included: Mr. Gérard Filion, director of Le Devoir; M. Paul Larocque, secretary of the Aluminum Company of Canada Limited; M. David Munroe, Principal of Macdonald Teacher's College; Sister Marie-Laurent-de-Rome, Professor of Philosophy at Collège Basile-Moreau; Miss Jeanne Lapointe, Professor at the Faculty of Letters, Laval; M. John McIlhone, Director of English classes for the Montreal Catholic School Commission; and M. Guy Rocher, director of the Department of Sociology of the University of Montreal.

The Commission held more than one hundred private meetings, conducted public meetings in eight different Quebec cities, and visited eleven European countries as well as the other nine Canadian provinces.

Of the three hundred and four briefs received by the Commission, 70.5 per cent were from French speaking groups, 27.3 per cent from English speaking, and 2.2 per cent from others. Eighty-seven point four

²¹News item in Le Devoir, February 9, 1961, p. 1.

per cent of these briefs were presented by groups or organizations while the remaining 12.6 per cent came from individuals. The Commission presented the first part of its report to the Provincial Cabinet on April 22, 1962.

The principle of a Royal Commission is considered to be in keeping with the democratic way of bringing about reforms. The members of a Royal Commission are usually quite representative of a wide sector of the people, and the usually large number and variety of briefs presented to a commission expand the scope of views and opinions to include almost every faction of the population. When these factors are taken into consideration it would seem fair to conclude that the government, by establishing a Royal Commission on Education, was eager to solve the various problems of Quebec's educational situation with regard for the desires of the general population.

Local Authority

From the very beginning the local school boards enjoyed a great degree of independent authority. Both the general public and the government have considered this to be an essential condition for the preservation of individual rights. Even with the new trend toward centralization, and the unification of local boards at the secondary school level, the Minister of Youth insisted that "the school boards constitute an essential gear in the democratic operation of our system of education."²²

²² G. Raymond Laliberté, "Que deviendront les commissions scolaires catholiques du Quebec," L'Enseignement (December, 1962), p. 13.

Finance. The financial requirements of the local school boards are provided for in part by local assessment; however, an ever increasing portion of school board revenues are obtained through government grants. For example: in 1951, 41 per cent of all school board expenditures were covered by these grants, but by 1960, this figure had increased to 52 per cent.²³

It goes without saying that the method of distributing these grants can have a considerable effect on the actual power and autonomy of the local school boards. It is a generally accepted principle that a law providing for a statutory distribution of provincial grants is necessary to keep the local school boards free from various political influences.

Before January 28, 1960, provincial aid to local school boards excluded money for transportation, buildings, and libraries. However, special grants were available for these projects. Provincial financial assistance was channelled through the following categories: a Public School Fund, the Superior Education Fund, the Poor Municipalities Fund, the Fund to Further Facilitate the Progress of Education, and a Fund for Salary Bonuses.

In reference to the financial assistance system in Quebec, the Parent Commission said:

Since Confederation, and even before, the provincial system of education was developed through a series of amendments to the school act, or by the addition of new laws; moreover, court cases added diverse interpretations. Therefore, it is not astonishing to find a certain incoherence, and some contradictions in legislation which is spread over a period of more than a century. . . .Now is the time

²³Figures from news item in Le Devoir, March 16, 1962, p. 3.

to revise all this legislation in order to build a workable system of educational laws.²⁴

In order to unite the diverse legislation providing for educational aid to the local school boards and to improve the foundation program, the provincial legislature, on January 28, 1960, adopted Bill 44. Article six of this law states:

The superintendent will annually divide and distribute the portion of monies provided for Roman Catholic School Boards according to the following schedule. Any corporation having the right to do so, will receive during the period of one school year, a grant which is to vary ~~from~~ from one hundred to one thousand and five hundred dollars for each classroom. This grant is to be determined and awarded in proportion to the school assessment of the individual proprietors, and of the corporations, and of the companies legally established, according to the financial arrangements of the previous year. The sum total of the grant that a board is eligible to receive, according to the terms of this law, must not exceed seventy-five per cent of the salaries paid to the whole staff of teachers employed by that particular board. The total number of class-rooms is calculated on the basis of 1/25th of the average annual attendance of pupils in the school.²⁵

The legislation introduced and passed by the new regime provided a great deal of financial relief to a large majority of the school boards in Quebec. In actual fact, the new legislation provided the school boards of the province with a per annum increase of about ten million dollars over the previous year.

The same law increased the government's share in the cost of transportation and the financing of text-books from fifty per cent to seventy-five per cent. The provincial share of the cost of school libraries was increased to a figure based on seventy-five per cent of the cost of the books.

²⁴ News item in Le Devoir, April 23, 1963, p. 9.

²⁵ News item in L'Enseignement (March, 1960), pp. 10-11.

The government's purpose in establishing this legislation was to unite and clarify the existing system, and to allow the school boards to carry out their educational duties with the greatest possible freedom from outside influence and interference. Antonio Barrette, at that time Quebec Premier, made this clear in an address delivered at the meeting of the Council of Education, February 20, 1960.

In the future, an educational project in the province of Quebec must never be said to be impossible due to any financial difficulties. In the future we need only look for the most direct method of achieving a goal, and never shall a financial matter be considered a matter of concern or an obstacle to any goal.²⁶

Through these laws the local school boards were able to gain more power and autonomy on two fronts which are generally regarded as being diametrically opposed. Usually, a financial gain is paid for with a loss of freedom, but in this particular case, the school boards gained in the amount of the grants and were actually less inhibited by political interference than they had been previously.²⁷

Planning and centralization. The new magnitude of government spending in the field of education was accompanied by a new interest in overall planning. In an address delivered at the tenth Anniversary of the Faculty of Commerce of Laval University, Paul Gérin-Lajoie said:

It is becoming more obvious that education is a part of the whole economy, and because of this, it must be efficient in itself,

²⁶ Province de Quebec, Conseil de l'Instruction publique, Procès-verbal de la séance du 24 février 1960 (Quebec, 1960), p. 46.

²⁷ In the 1962-63 provincial budget, education represented 25 per cent (300 millions) of the total expenditures, and the 1963-64 estimates gave 33.33 per cent (330 millions) for education.

and it must also be coordinated with the overall economic aims of the province. . . . In any event, Quebecers, in the years 1961-62, spent 8.5 per cent of their personal income for education. This compares with 5.7 per cent in 1957. The government regards it as being its duty to insure that the riches given to its care be distributed in an efficient and rational manner.²⁸

Shortly after his appointment to the Cabinet, Gérin-Lajoie established the Bureau of Planning. The aim of this agency was to search for methods that would insure the most efficient use of educational funds, and also to coordinate educational spending with the more general economic objectives of the whole province.

One of the first projects undertaken by this bureau was the setting up of an educational map of the province. The government was specifically concerned with secondary schools, which at the regional level presented three problems in attempts at centralization. First, each locality wanted the regional school to be built within its limits, secondly, educational facilities were found to vary to a great degree between localities and lastly, many existing facilities could be wasted in the move to replace a number of existing boards with a single regional board. The first regional boards were established on a population basis of about one board to every twenty thousand people. However, the Minister of Youth indicated that future expansion was being contemplated.

A secondary school reaches its maximum efficiency when it serves one thousand students. Such a student enrollment can only be expected within an area that comprises a population of forty to fifty thousand people. The organization of a regional school board requires that certain factors be taken into consideration. For example, our present experience in transportation shows that it is possible to organize vanning facilities without any detrimental effects on the student's health and academic achievement so long as

²⁸News item in Le Devoir, April 25, 1963, p. 1.

the trip does not last more than one hour, which is generally a distance of from 25 to 30 miles. We generally choose as a regional center the largest city, or the center which is located in the area of the densest population.²⁹

Meanwhile, the Minister of Youth established the Service (Department) of Buildings and School Equipment. This was designed to fill two functions: it had to survey any area where the Ministry was required to provide financial or technical aid for the construction, alteration, or improvement of any school buildings, and it had to establish the procedures and norms to be followed by the Ministry itself. In 1962 this service sent a book of procedure to all school boards in order to standardize and simplify the procedure to be followed whenever a new school was required.

One of the most obvious problems to be faced by Quebec educators was the fact that many of the small, isolated, and widely-spread rural schools throughout the Province did not offer adequate teaching facilities. Centralization was the solution to this problem, and by 1959 most of these one- and two-room schools had been eliminated and replaced by larger schools within the same municipality. The report of the superintendent for 1958-59 showed that in a single year, a total of one thousand five hundred forty of these one- and two-room schools had been eliminated. The process was to be continued until the remaining three thousand six hundred forty-seven schools of this nature had also been eliminated.³⁰

However, this problem was not so easy to solve in the case of

²⁹News item in La Presse, September 15, 1962, p. 25.

³⁰Figures from L'Enseignement, December, 1960, pp. 10-11.

secondary schools. The number of pupils necessary for the efficient operation of an elementary school could usually be found within a single municipality or at least a fairly small area. When the demand for secondary education became more widespread, the majority of the local boards, because they were not able to meet the population requirements of fifty thousand, were not able to provide the best standards of education for students at the secondary level.

In 1956 a group of school boards in Chambly County tried to solve this problem by developing their own county secondary school system. The difficulties encountered by these boards in meeting the requirements of the existing education laws prompted the legislature to action during the 1959-60 session. The result was the legislation which brought into being the Corporation of Secondary Schools for the County of Chambly. This corporation, which existed in an area containing one hundred thousand people, began by constructing two, twenty-four classroom schools, and expanding their curriculum to include all the courses listed in the provincial program of studies.

The success of this program prompted the government to adopt it as the official pattern for all comparable situations throughout the province, with the result that there was a great increase in the number of such secondary school associations.

Legislative approval of three new regional school boards in February of 1963 brought their number to thirteen.³¹ The Minister of

³¹Lalonde, Bois-Francs, Missisquoi, Chambly, Larentides, Le-Gardeur, Duvernay, La Chaudière, Mille-Isles, Isles-de-la-Madeleine, Vaudreuil, and Soulages (figures and names from news item in Le Devoir, February 15, 1963, p. 15).

Youth forecast that by the end of 1963 thirty-five such boards would be established, with an expected total of seventy-five within the next few years.

Through the incorporation of additional facilities, the Minister of Youth put into operation a long-range plan to transform the new educational centers into "Cities of Youth" (Youth Cities). The Minister referred to these plans at a press conference.

The Provincial Government has decided to encourage the establishment of school cities similar to those which have been in operation for the past five years in France. These cities, consisting of a unique campus which brings students of such diverse disciplines as the classics, science, and agriculture into close proximity, make it easier to provide a broader, more democratic concept of education.³²

The first of these youth cities was built in the area of Vaudreuil, which is located in the constituency represented by the Minister of Youth, and was opened in September 1963. It includes four secondary schools for both boys and girls, English and French, one classical college, one technical school, one institute of heavy machinery, one sports center with indoor and outdoor swimming pools, gymnasium and arena, cafeterias, laboratories, public and school libraries, one arts home, and one concert hall.

This youth city was designed to accommodate between five and six thousand students, and was established in the hope that by knocking down the psychological walls existing between different types of education the student would be prompted to develop a broader and more democratic outlook. The youth city is also intended to make better use of

³²News item in Le Devoir, October 18, 1961, p. 1.

the teaching staff, to give the students better practical counseling, and to make maximum use of school finances. According to Paul Gerin-Lajoie:

. . . The City of Youth of Vaudreuil is an attempt at complete integration and coordination. It was planned in an attempt to save capital, administrative, and operating expenses. The concentration of buildings and the student population in one area justifies educational, cultural and athletic services that would not be possible in any other separate institution.³³

Services such as the public library and the auditorium were included in the youth city in an attempt to bring about closer relations between students and adult citizens.

Democratization. The desire for greater participation by the general public in school life has also been expressed in many other ways during the past five years. The following observation by Dorothy C. Tompkins clearly defines the major task of those who are responsible for school district reorganization:

The major problem. . . is how to secure a school district that is large enough to be educationally adequate and economically efficient, yet small enough to retain popular interest and control to effectuate lay participation and leadership.³⁴

In order to stimulate the interest of the general public, the Quebec government, at its 1960-61 session, gave all parents of school-age children the right to elect the members of the school board. At the regional secondary school level the Minister of Youth suggested that all

³³News item in Le Devoir, March 27, 1962, p. 3.

³⁴Dorothy C. Tompkins, Reorganization of School Districts (University of California, Bureau of Public Administration, November, 1961), p. 4.

school administrators establish

. . . Consultative committees, composed of educators, school administrators, and members of financial and social groups which would have a relationship to the regional boards similar to that which the Superior Council of Education would have to the proposed Minister of Education.³⁵

To promote a greater understanding between parents and teachers, a federation of provincial parent-teacher associations was formed in Montreal in March 1963. This group, which was the result of many years of effort, was determined to stay free from any external influence. This was made quite clear in a statement by Paul Desrochers, the first president of the association: "We will not accept any government grants. We are mature enough to live by ourselves."³⁶

At this time there were seventeen diocesan councils in the province, with all of these councils having parent-teacher associations. At the local level, the number of such associations increased from two hundred in 1962 to three hundred eighty-four by February of 1963. The aims of these associations were stipulated in the federation's constitution.

- (a) To stimulate an integrated education program.
- (b) To make families conscious of their rights and duties in regard to education.
- (c) To create a closer relationship between parents, teachers, and school boards.³⁷

In the province of Quebec, all school board members are elected, with the exception of those in the cities of Quebec and Montreal. Here

³⁵News item in Le Devoir, May 27, 1963, p. 1.

³⁶News item in Le Devoir, May 23, 1963, p. 14.

³⁷News item in Le Devoir, March 25, 1963, p. 14.

the members are appointed by the provincial legislature and the respective Archbishops. In July, 1961, Paul-Emile, Cardinal Leger, Archbishop of Montreal, broke with a long-standing tradition by appointing three laymen instead of three clergymen to the Montreal Catholic Board as Church representatives. These three laymen worked with their four colleagues, who had been appointed by the provincial government, in such a way as to make the administration of Quebec's largest school board follow more democratic procedures.

A number of beneficial developments were seen as the result of this policy change. For the first time in the one hundred seventeen year history of the board, an annual report was published. Textbook purchases were made by tender. In November, 1962, the board created an information service to keep the general public as well as the teaching staff informed concerning the operations of the board. As a further move to create public interest in the administration of the board, a series of public meetings were held between teachers and the trustees, as well as between representatives of diverse social groups and the trustees. The trustees also held a meeting with young people who had recently graduated from the public schools. These young people were asked to evaluate the education they had received from Montreal schools, and also to give their opinion on how well this education had prepared them for post-school life.

The new team at the helm of Montreal Catholic education not only tried to improve conditions within the actual system of operations, they also suggested to the Royal Commission on Education that a more democratic system be employed for the formation of the school board

itself. Jean-Paul Lefebvre, Director of External Relations for the Confederation of National Syndicates, who was also a board member appointed by the Archbishop, made the following statement concerning this matter.

The Montreal Catholic School Board should be composed of 15 members; seven of whom should be elected by parents. . .one by the teachers. . .and the seven others appointed as follows: three by the Archbishop. . .three by the provincial government, and one by the city of Montreal.³⁸

A new form of local authority, which was not related to the usual school board, came into being at about this same time in St. Paul's College in Montreal. Under the recommendation of Cardinal Léger, and after consultation with the Minister of Youth, a twelve-member corporation was established for the administration of the college. This corporation consisted of five members appointed by the parents of the students, two members appointed by the academic council (teachers), two members appointed by the associate members (patrons), and one member each appointed by the Archbishop, the Minister of Youth, and the Rector of the College.

The purpose of such an organization was explained by the Minister of Youth:

We wanted the appointees of the parents and teachers to constitute the majority (seven out of the twelve members) in this administrative council. . .We wanted to encourage the teachers to actively participate in the college administration. . .We were also determined that the Church and the State should have equal representation on the council. . .The regulations sanctioned by the Administrative Council are subject to the approval

³⁸News item in Le Devoir, March 12, 1963, p. 3.

of the Minister of Youth and the Archbishop.³⁹

Legislative approval for this new scheme was given November 1, 1962.

Following the pattern established at St. Paul's College, a second classical college was reorganized along the same lines in Hauterive. The announcement to this effect was made by the bishop of the diocese in May, 1963.

Next June, the clergy will give up the financial and academic responsibilities as well as the administrative and disciplinary functions of this institution. Such duties require the services of a great number of priests; I now ask the laymen to take their place in this field. The proper operation of such an institution requires a great deal of time and effort, so much in fact, that a diocese is really unable to spare the manpower necessary to fill the requirements. However, the full collaboration of the clergy is still insured for the new directorate.⁴⁰

According to Mgr. Pierre Décarie, President of the Federation of Quebec Classical Colleges, who said, "the clergy is very happy to turn over to the laymen control of all classical education. . .,"⁴¹ it would seem that many more colleges will soon follow the precedents established by the two colleges in Montreal and Hauterive.

³⁹News item in Le Devoir, June 7, 1961, p. 2.

⁴⁰News item in Le Devoir, May 23, 1963, p. 3.

⁴¹News item in Le Devoir, May 1, 1963, p. 1.

CHAPTER IV

CHANGES AFFECTING STUDENTS

All changes in educational policy have either a direct or an indirect effect on the student. A change in the attendance laws or in the curriculum has a direct bearing on the students' opportunities to attend school, or on the opportunities to be had in school. On the other hand, a change in the formal structure of the system, or a change in teacher status has an indirect effect on the student population.

It was the government's intention to improve the lot of Quebec students from both the direct and indirect points of view. On his first visit to the Catholic Committee of the Council of Public Instruction on September 28, 1960, Premier Jean Lesage said:

. . . We desire to make it possible for all children, whatever their social origin and whatever their family financial resources, to be educated in conformity with their aptitudes and their desire to realize their vocation.⁴²

Then, a few months later, the Minister of Youth Gérin-Lajoie spoke of the basic principles which would be the guide for drawing up an educational map for the province:

We must begin with the principle that children have different aptitudes, and we must not under any circumstances force them to be educated in the same mold. We must give the child the opportunity of making his own choice from among a field of options as diversified as possible, because each child has his own individual aptitude.⁴³

⁴²Province de Québec, Comité catholique du Conseil de l'Instruction publique, Procès-verbal de la séance du 28 septembre 1960 (Québec, 1960), p. 8.

⁴³News item in Le Devoir, March 27, 1961, p. 3.

These statements clearly indicate the desire of the government to act in these areas having a direct effect on the students.

Attendance

The first step that must be made in attempts to improve the status of students is to give them the opportunity of going to school for, obviously, even the best program of studies is worthless to children who are not in school.

Bill 82, passed by the legislature in 1961, raised the age for compulsory school attendance from fourteen to fifteen years. Those responsible for this legislation expressed the view that this age limit should be increased to sixteen as soon as possible. Bill 50, which provided for a monthly allowance of ten dollars for students from sixteen to eighteen years of age did a great deal to increase the attendance of those in this age bracket. Seventy-five thousand students took advantage of this allowance during the 1961-62 session.⁴⁴

A bill passed during that same period increased the government's share of the cost of textbooks and student transportation from fifty to seventy-five per cent. Moreover, these grants for textbooks were made available with the provision that the textbooks would be used by the students free of charge. And to put teeth into this law the Catholic committee of education passed the following regulation at the February 1960 meeting:

The Superintendent is empowered to retain a portion of the grants made to any board of education which permits or tolerates the purchase by students of commercial non-authorized examinations or summaries, and that the superintendent is instructed to take

⁴⁴Figures from news item in Le Devoir, August 11, 1961, p. 3.

whatever steps he may deem necessary to remove such non-authorized examinations or summaries from the schools.⁴⁵

Bill 81, passed in 1961, compelled the boards of education to provide free education for all students up to Grade 11 inclusive. However, in schools offering Grade 12 this extra year was also to be provided free. The school boards were required to pay up to two hundred dollars a year tuition fees for a student in a private institution recognized by the Department of Education. This policy regarding tuition fees cost the Montreal Catholic Board of Education \$1,900,000 during the 1962-63 fiscal year.⁴⁶ The number of children taking advantage of the new monthly allowance, and the amount paid by the Montreal Catholic Board of Education in tuition fees gives a good indication of the success in the government's efforts to improve school attendance, particularly at the secondary school level.

Another aspect of government help in the field of education, the granting of bursaries, was greatly accelerated. The provisions for bursaries in 1962-63 amounted to more than was made in the three-year period from 1957 to 1960.

⁴⁵ Province de Québec, Comité catholique du Conseil de l'Instruction publique, Procès-verbal de la séance des 23 et 24 février 1960 (Québec, 1960), p. 3.

⁴⁶ Figures from news item in Le Devoir, February 8, 1961, p. 3.

Bursaries to Students

1957-1963

<u>Year</u>	<u>Number of bursaries</u>	<u>Total Amount</u>
1957-58	12,838	\$2,158,283
1958-59	14,887	2,732,265
1959-60	<u>17,567</u>	<u>4,519,362</u>
Total for three years	45,292	9,409,810
1960-61	22,498	5,981,148
1961-62	32,341	9,090,442
1962-63	43,700	13,476,590 ⁴⁷

The School Program

When provisions are made to facilitate an increase in school attendance, school authorities must provide the school system with curricula that meet the needs of the students or the efforts made to keep students in school will be to no avail. The preparation of school curricula must take into account individual differences and must attempt to be responsible to as many of the individual dispositions as possible. At the same time the program of studies must be broad enough to adapt the student to the greatest number of life's possibilities. This important point was not overlooked by the Parent Commission:

Times are changing so significantly as to prompt the Parent Commission to state that twenty-five per cent of today's pupils will have to perform functions unknown at the present time. It seems reasonable to conclude that the remaining seventy-five per cent of the one million in the province will have to integrate themselves into a context considerably different from the one which we

⁴⁷Figures from news item in L'Enseignement, February 1963, p. 17. These bursaries were for undergraduate and graduate students, but it will be seen in the second part of this chapter that there was a trend to include undergraduate schools (colleges) in the public system. "The number of bursaries and the total amount represents more than what is done in all the other Canadian provinces combined." ref. Jean Lesage, Discours du budget (Queen's Printer, Quebec, 1963), p. 46.

now know. More than ever before the only acceptable way of educating people must be conditioned by a dual objective: to make youth as broad-minded as possible, and especially, to teach them to think by themselves.⁴⁸

Primary school program. In September 1962 the Catholic Committee of the Council of Education approved the basic principles for the new program of primary studies. Two main reasons motivated this change in the primary curriculum: the new *raison d'être* of the primary schools, and the changes in size and facilities of school classes. The committee discussed the new role of the primary schools at its September 1962 meeting:

At the present time the small number of pupils leaving school upon the completion of their seventh year makes the primary program a preparatory stage for further studies rather than a complete program in itself, which hitherto had fulfilled the role of preparing a man to take his place in society. . . . The primary school is no longer a terminus as it was for many people a few years ago; once again the program of studies at the primary level must be adapted to the needs of today's students. . . . The ever decreasing number of pupils attending one-room schools in this province justifies the preparation of a new program for centralized schools.⁴⁹

The primary school was now given a double purpose: to give the child a solid training in all those habits necessary for the good life, and to provide that indispensable academic foundation necessary for further studies. It would be worthwhile to pay some attention to two important aspects of the completed program: its contents and its adaptability.

⁴⁸Benoit Fleury, "Un million d'élèves comptent sur de bons éducateurs," L'Enseignement, June-July, 1963, p. 1.

⁴⁹Province de Québec, Comité catholique du conseil de l'Instruction publique, Procès-verbal de la réunion du 26 septembre 1962 (Québec, 1962), p. 502.

When the Catholic Committee presented its case for the new primary program it noted that its content was based on three fundamental disciplines. Religion, language, and mathematics were to be taught on the basis of three cycles of two years each, thus reducing the overall primary program from seven to six years. However, in addition to the three basic courses, each two-year cycle was to contain informal instruction in various fields particularly suited to the age of the student. During the first cycle which included grades one and two (students six and seven years of age), and which is regarded as the age of intuitive reasoning, these informal subjects included physical education as well as an introduction to music and the arts. The second cycle, comprising grades three and four (students eight and nine years of age), or the age when logical thought is believed to be first aroused, featured a study of the environment and of the basic elements of natural sciences; with the girls being given an introduction to the household arts through means of audio and visual aids. By the time the third cycle was reached the student should be prepared to begin a more formal study of such courses as history and geography. The new program also included time for "enterprise" work in which the young student would be given the opportunity to cultivate an interest in one or more of the hobbies and pastimes that are essential in a world where leisure has become such an important factor. The proposal to teach English at this stage of the student's academic training was questioned by a number of competent educators who were concerned about the advisability of beginning the study of a second language at such an early age, with the result that this proposal was tabled for further study. As a further

point, the Catholic Council emphasized that this new primary program could not be completely successful unless the students received a certain amount of preparation in a kindergarten.

It was hoped that this new program would provide something for the different aptitude of each child. The Catholic Committee pointed out that the new curriculum

. . . Must offer to each child the maximum that he is entitled to and this must be provided in accordance to his abilities, his aptitudes, and his aspirations. . . . In order to facilitate the complete application of such a principle, the organization of this primary program offers the following adaptations:

- a) an enriched program for students of medium-superior, superior and very superior intellectual level;
- b) the regular program for students of medium intellectual level;
- c) a reduced program for students of medium-inferior intellectual level.⁵⁰

The Committee also dealt with the methodology to be incorporated in the new program:

Regardless of the intellectual or age level of the individual pupil the whole program is designed to foster the maximum employment of each of his faculties. . . . This new program requires methods and procedures that:

- a) begin with attentive and direct observations;
- b) emphasize understanding rather than memorization;
- c) develop character and personality;
- d) cultivate spontaneous thinking and aggressive minds;
- e) develop a sense of responsibility and prepare students for the proper use of liberty and a respect for authority.⁵¹

A few of the ideas which were incorporated in the new program of studies had already been tried in the previous program. However, the program itself with its three cycles was completely different from the one practiced before.

⁵⁰ Province de Québec, Comité catholique du conseil de l'Instruction publique, Procès-verbal de la séance du 26 septembre 1962 (Québec, 1962), p. 505.

⁵¹ Ibid., p. 506.

In order to give new Canadians, particularly those speaking Italian, an opportunity to adapt themselves to Quebec schools, the Catholic committee adopted a program of special studies for grades one, two, and three, specifically designed for them. After one year on a trial basis, it was decided to give this new project a more permanent stature. This was done in May of 1961. It was the object of the program to teach the students to read and write in their mother tongue, and also to provide religious instruction in their native language. The remainder of the subjects were divided equally between French and English. These classes were inaugurated in Montreal schools, with experimentation in two such classes begun in September, 1960. A year later seven schools were provided with such classes. In May of 1962, similar classes were set up in thirteen schools (nine Italian, one Ukrainian, one Polish, one Chinese, one Japanese) and a special section of the Department of Studies was created in the Catholic Board in Montreal. This new section was quite distinct and independent from the French and English sections of the Board. According to the Catholic committee: "A school board is not only encouraged, but compelled, to set up this special program of studies when the number of such eligible students is sufficiently large to warrant it."⁵² In 1952 there were 15,000 new Canadian students in the Catholic School System of Montreal. The English section of the Catholic Board did not agree with the views of the Department of Education concerning this matter, mainly because it was among their students that the greatest percentage of new Canadians were to be found.

⁵²News item in Le Devoir, May 19, 1962, p. 15.

Only one-third of the students in English Catholic schools in Montreal were actually Anglo-Canadians, and among these about 7.2 per cent were of Irish origin. However, it was common knowledge that the Irish group was the ruling element in the English Section of the Education Board, and they were the actual initiators of the quarrel. This group was fearful of the loss of influence it would suffer when approximately two-thirds of the students under its control would be lost to them with the establishment of a special department for new Canadians.^{53,54}

Secondary school program. As has been seen, a great number of innovations were initiated in attempts to improve the curriculum for elementary schools, with the object in mind of encouraging students to further their education at the secondary level. As a result, the secondary school system was now called upon to handle the needs of a greatly increased number of students. Consequently, a program of renovation had to be designed for secondary education in Quebec.

One of the most important improvements in the curriculum of the public secondary schools was the introduction of the Matriculation Program patterned on that offered in the classical colleges. Actually, this change had begun prior to September of 1959, but it was not until the laws designed to improve school attendance were passed after September of 1959 that the number of schools in the province offering this matriculation program reached significant proportions. By 1963, this program was regarded as a normal part of a secondary public school,

⁵³Ibid. ⁵⁴News item in Le Devoir, May 22, 1962, p. 3.

although it was still necessary to get a permit from the Department of Education before a school could set up its classical program.

After a number of different attempts to adapt the secondary course to the greatest possible number of students, the Catholic Committee in February of 1960 decided on the following pattern, which was given final approval on February 22, 1961, and published under the title Programme d'Etudes des Ecoles Secondaires, 1961.

For boys, the secondary schools offered six courses: general, commercial, scientific, classical, agricultural, and industrial. Normally, these courses were of four-year duration, except agriculture, which was of two years, and industrial, which was a five-year program. It was also possible to add a fifth year to commercial and scientific courses after approbation by the Department of Education. These optional courses were described as follows by the Department of Education:

The General Course. . . is designed to prepare the student to go directly into the world, or into some professional schools of medium level. . . . It is a course fitted for students who cannot plan for further general studies. . . .

The Commercial Course. . . prepared the student to take a job at the end of his fourth year.

The Scientific Course. . . prepares the student to go into advanced studies at the college or university level. . . . At the grade 10 and 11 levels, there are two scientific courses: Science-Letters, and Science-Mathematics. The latter of these two courses emphasizes a more fundamental preparation for the advanced schools and faculties of science.

The Classical Course. . . is regarded as the usual prerequisite for university.

The Agricultural Course. . . prepares the student to go directly into farming.

The Industrial Course. . . trains skilled workers, industrial supervisors, etc.⁵⁵

⁵⁵Province de Québec, Comité catholique du Conseil de l'Instruction publique, Programme d'Etudes des Ecoles secondaires (Québec, 1961), pp. 7-8.

For girls, the secondary school offered five courses: general, commercial, scientific, classical, and household. The Department of Education described the first four courses in much the same manner as it did for the boys, except that they were adapted to the girls' personality. However, the department described the two-year household course as being:

. . . Suited for students who finish the elementary course, and desire an immediate preparation for the virtues and work of a good housekeeper. With the permission of the superintendent, a third year could be added, which was a year of specialization in certain feminine skills.⁵⁶

It was the aim of the architects of this new program of the secondary schools to:

- (a) give the students a broad basic knowledge and to teach them the fundamentals of science;
- (b) develop intellectual curiosity and a spirit of personal research, and to train the students in proper working methods;
- (c) train the student in the proper use of the deductive and inductive methods, and to teach him prudence in judgement;
- (d) awaken in the student a sense of individual responsibility as a man, and as a Christian;
- (e) suggest Christian, family, professional, and social ideals, which are able to arouse and maintain dynamic and powerful interest;
- (f) assist the student in the pursuit of these ideals, and in the apprenticeship of liberty;
- (g) develop in the student a feeling of joy at being called, in his own particular way, to serve God, the Church, the country, and other people.⁵⁷

In order to educate boys and girls in keeping with the needs of their respective sexes, the Catholic Committee in September of 1961 formally stated its support of sexual segregation in the school system.

In order to respect the different psychological and educational needs of the sexes, the secondary schools must, in principle, be distinct for each sex. However, when local conditions permit but

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 9. ⁵⁷Ibid., p. 13.

one school building, sexual segregation is still advisable. In this case the rooms should be separated as much as possible and adapted to the feminine or masculine psychology. The common rooms should be kept to the minimum allowable under the circumstances.⁵⁸

Because there were a certain number of students who were not fitted to any of the courses described above, the course of "pré-emploi, initiation au travail" (job preparation or work initiation) was approved by the Catholic Committee in September of 1962. In May of 1963 the first classes for this purpose were opened in suburban Montreal.

The Montreal Catholic School Commission in cooperation with the Minister of Youth also tried to meet the needs of certain specialized categories of students, such as immigrant students, failure students, or low average students. A number of special classes for such students was set up in the Montreal Catholic School System.

The Catholic Committee in December of 1960 brought out special regulations for those who for one reason or another had been unable to obtain their grade nine or grade eleven diplomas while students. The diploma candidates were given permission to write examinations in one or a number of sittings. The adult diploma candidate upon passing the examination was given the same diploma as that given to regular students. In the event of failing a candidate was allowed to try again. For convenience sake, the candidate was allowed to sit for examinations during the evening or on Saturdays.

The most recent improvement in secondary education was introduced by the Catholic Committee at the March 14, 1962 meeting. The Committee

⁵⁸Province de Québec, Comité catholique du Conseil de l'Instruction publique, Procès-verbal de la réunion du 13 septembre 1961 (Québec, 1961), p. 23.

gave school boards having a classical section permission to establish a college section. The only condition was approval by both the Catholic Committee and the Faculty of Arts of any Quebec Catholic university. The Minister of Youth was opposed to such a project. In any event, the Montreal Board of Education planned to introduce the college section into its schools in September 1964. The argument of the Montreal Catholic Board for the initiation of the college within its schools was presented by Trefflé Boulanger, adjoint pédagogique au président, at a press conference in May of 1963.

There is a very strong possibility that the Montreal Catholic School Board will be forced to offer a college program in September of 1964. . . .The Montreal classical colleges have notified the Montreal Catholic School Board that in September of 1964 they will be unable to receive the graduate students from classical sections of the Board because of insufficient classroom space. . . .The Montreal Catholic Board will then be morally compelled to offer a college section since the students cannot be left without the opportunity to pursue their course of study.⁵⁹

Teaching aids. All changes considered in the previous paragraphs were those with a direct relationship to the program of studies. There were, however, some other trends which had an indirect relationship to the programs, namely those we shall refer to under the heading of teaching aids.

For quite some time Quebec teachers have had a large source of audio-visual aids at their disposal. Provided free of charge by the Department of Education, these audio-visual aids consisted mainly of films on Biology, Physics, Chemistry, History and Geography. Different

⁵⁹ News item in Le Devoir, May 14, 1963, p. 3.

radio stations offered regular programs in oral French to help students improve their language. During the 1960-61 term the government provided \$500,000 for improvement of school libraries. This was an increase of \$425,000 compared with the preceding year.⁶⁰

One of the best planned and prepared teaching aids was educational television. Sponsored by the Catholic Committee, the Ministry of Youth, and the Boards of Education, the first experiment in this field was held in Montreal on November 28, 1961. The second experiment this time on a provincial scale, was begun on April 21, 1962. Seventy thousand grade eight and grade nine students from more than three hundred Boards of Education were involved in this experiment. Teachers were required to report on the value and effects of these televised courses in their respective classes. Maurice Gosselin, director of television and radio programs for the Department of Youth gave the following summary of the results of these first experiments:

The willingness of the educational institutions in Quebec to cooperate in the development of this service is much greater than that found in different foreign countries which had experimented with such services and which now have regular educational television programming. About 650 Boards of Education used the new service in 20,000 classrooms containing 400,000 students throughout Quebec. These figures are only for public schools, and do not include private institutions. . . . Moreover, we must also point out that thousands of parents have requested information relating to these school programs.⁶¹

Drawing on the knowledge gained in these two experiments in educational television, the Catholic Committee in May of 1962 adopted

⁶⁰ Figures from L'Enseignement, March, 1960, p. 16.

⁶¹ News item in Le Devoir, February 25, 1963, p. 14.

the following regulations in regard to televised educational programs:

Next year's educational television programming should be considered as a continuation of this year's experiment. The whole problem of educational television is of such complexity and novelty that it would be unwise at this time to establish a definite policy. . . . These television programs do not aim to replace teachers, but instead to provide enrichment within the limits of the present curriculum and the traditional methods of instruction. . . . The programs are for the use of all boards of education as well as private institutions of this province. . . . The program for next year includes science in grade six, and physics in grade eleven, with both series to be of twenty to twenty-five half-hour periods. . . . One educator should be hired for the preparation and survey of each subject dealt with through the medium of the television. . . . The Board of Educational Television should be established immediately.⁶²

L'Association Canadienne-Française pour l'Avancement des Sciences, A.C.F.A.S. (French-Canadian Association for the Advancement of Science), in collaboration with the Ministry of Youth, held its first scientific exhibition for all students in the province at the University of Montreal in April of 1961. The promoters of this exposition suggested that the students set up displays of original research in the biological, physical, chemical, mathematical or technical fields. This exhibition consisted of static displays as well as laboratory methods, industrial processes, and other activities related to the theory and practice of science. The following year a second scientific exhibition was held in Montreal in which three hundred forty-five students participated. The Ministry of Youth and several cultural organizations provided three thousand dollars in bursaries and prizes for the students making the best presentations.⁶³

⁶²Province de Québec, Comité catholique du Conseil de l'Instruction publique, Procès-verbal de la réunion spéciale du 17 avril 1962 et réunion des 22 et 23 mai 1962 ajournée au 30 mai 1962 et au 4 juin 1962 (Québec, 1962, pp. 187-189).

⁶³Figures from L'Enseignement, October, 1962, p. 23.

An interesting experiment involving the twenty-eight students of a grade seven class at St.-Charles-Garnier School was carried out in the 1962-63 term. The students, as a group, corresponded with sixteen young French students in Ivry in suburban Paris, France. Throughout the year, each group described to the other the life of a student and the characteristics of the country. A number of the students were so enthusiastic about the project that they began pen-pal relationships with their counterparts in France. Le Devoir commenting on the project stated that:

M. Jean-Marie Massé from the research bureau of the Montreal Catholic Board testified that he had received a great number of letters from French schools indicating they were interested in establishing similar relationships with French-Canadian groups of students. . . . The Paris-Montreal exchanges proved to be so numerous and they accumulated material so interesting that it was decided to put it on exhibit at the St.-Charles-Garnier School.⁶⁴

⁶⁴ News item in Le Devoir, May 7, 1963, p. 3.

CHAPTER V

CHANGES AFFECTING TEACHERS

Although numerous changes may occur in the formal structures, in the status of students, and in curriculum, it remains true that a school is only as good as its teachers.

The teacher has always been considered the living centre of any system of education. This view would be easily substantiated through a perusal of any one of the great number of works related to education. All the great education reformers, La-Salle, Gerson, Lancaster, Montessori or Dewey, have tried to influence the teacher in order to implement their new philosophy. Even the most recent studies have proven that teachers are still the key figures in the learning process.

Hutchins found, for instance, that the most important factor which influenced student interest in science was the teacher, and that the most common reasons cited by students for disliking science were difficulty of science subjects, poorly trained teachers, and poor teaching.⁶⁵

Maurice Lebel, Dean of the Faculty of Letters at Laval University, summarized this point of view at an address delivered to a meeting of the Quebec City Catholic Teachers' Syndicate in November of 1961.

What is of paramount importance in teaching is teacher education. It has been repeated hundreds of times and can never be

⁶⁵ Hubert M. Evans, "Studies in Science Education for 1958-59: The Secondary Schools," School Science and Mathematics, 60 (May, 1960), p. 367.

over-emphasized that the most wonderful curriculum, the most ingenious continuity between the diverse levels of education, or the most intelligent coordination of primary, secondary, and academic education is absolutely worthless, even more worthless than the paper on which it is written, without teacher training, without teacher competence. Teacher education is both the solution and the problem; teacher education is the primeval question. Give me good teachers, well trained, well educated, and enthusiastic, and I will no longer worry about curricula, and the over-emphasized coordination. . . . Given well trained teachers, good curricula and good textbooks will infallibly follow. As long as our number one problem, teacher training, remains unsolved our efforts are wasted.⁶⁶

How much attention was paid to the teacher in the reformation of Quebec education? What was done, for instance, in regard to his training, his working conditions, and his retirement pension plan? The Minister of Youth stated the fundamental problem

. . . Is the training of teaching personnel. The greatest concentration of effort should be at the normal school level. . . . Recruitment, training, and remuneration of teachers will have to be improved. We will have to raise the status of the teaching profession to such an extent that the selection of a teaching career will be as attractive a choice as any other liberal profession.⁶⁷

Teacher Training

An interesting feature of teacher training institutions in Quebec is the astonishing number of normal schools, particularly of the relatively small ones. According to Maurice Lebel:

There is no lack of normal schools in Quebec: in fact we have far too many. We have about 120 normal schools serving our population of 5,000,000, which is even more than France has for her population of 44,000,000. Economical, political, local, patriotic, and sentimental reasons led to a great number of normal schools;

⁶⁶Maurice Lebel, "L'instituteur du Québec et l'instituteur de France," L'Enseignement, January, 1962, p. 12.

⁶⁷News item, L'Enseignement, January, 1961, p. 2.

number was over-emphasized, quality neglected.⁶⁸

Another reason for the great number of normal schools in Quebec is the fact that each religious order of teachers insisted on its own teacher training school.

Facilities. At the May 22, 1962 meeting of the Catholic Council of Education it was decided to replace thirteen congregational normal schools with but two schools, one for Quebec City, the other for Montreal. This was one of the first steps in the reorganization of Quebec normal schools. It must be pointed out that this problem of an excess number of normal schools was particularly acute among the girls', lay and congregational schools (sixty-three and thirty-four respectively). This same problem existed, but to a lesser degree, in male teacher training, with sixteen congregational schools and six lay schools. Even in the face of pressure from certain factions, the government held firm in its new policy towards normal schools in the province. For example, the Minister of Youth would not permit the opening of a new normal school for men in Laprairie on Montreal's south shore, even after this project had received the approval of the Catholic Council of Education on December 13, 1961. Even to this day, the government has resisted pressure from a number of local groups for the opening of this school.

The \$1,000,000 expansion program at the Ecole Normale Jacques-Cartier in 1961-62 further indicated the intention of the authorities to consolidate teacher training within existing facilities, rather than

⁶⁸ Lebel, op. cit., p. 12.

expand the overall program. Included within the expansion program at Ecole Normale Jacques-Cartier was the introduction of such facilities as closed-circuit television, classrooms with one-way windows, a new library, two gyms, new laboratories, a language laboratory, chapel, a bowling alley, and a cafeteria. These new innovations were considered in an article written by two professors at the school.

Already a new orientation in school spirit may be discerned: experimentation now being possible, a student is given an opportunity to integrate his studies to his life, to ally practice and theory. A new and more positive conception now inspires the stage of practice-teaching. . . . What L'Ecole Normale Jacques-Cartier is experiencing this year suggests that both students and professors alike need a minimum living space and adequate means to function properly.⁶⁹

Basic program. In December of 1960 the sub-commission for normal schools was asked to study the curriculum of these schools, and to submit recommendations for its improvement. The sub-commission presented its first report to the Catholic Committee in March of 1962, and a revised report was approved by the committee in May of 1963. It included, in addition to the regular four-year training program, a number of special courses for the holders of a baccalaureate in arts, and for graduates under the formal program. A special program to train teachers of exceptional children, and mentally deficient children was also set up.

In order to raise the educational qualifications of teachers, the Catholic Committee decided in June of 1961 to repeal the class "C"

⁶⁹ Robert Michaud et Raymond Vézina, "L'Ecole Normale Jacques-Cartier, un élan nouveau: un pas vers la qualité," L'Enseignement, June-July, 1963, p. 14.

teaching certificate. This class "C" teaching certificate had been given to students completing one year of normal school.

According to Article 68 of the Quebec School Act, no one was entitled to teach in a school unless he was a holder of a diploma issued by the Department of Education, clergymen or members of religious order excepted. However, this exemption for clergymen or members of religious orders was abrogated by the Catholic Committee in December of 1961.

Further training. In order to meet the new requirements of the Catholic Committee, or to improve their qualifications, many teachers went back to summer school or to evening and Saturday classes. Seven thousand, one hundred eleven teachers enrolled for the summer courses offered by the Department of Education in 1961. This number represented an increase of 2,128 over the previous year.⁷⁰ There was a total of 22,000 different registrations for the combined program of summer courses and evening and Saturday classes for the year 1962-63, in comparison to 15,000 for the period 1960-61.⁷¹

These statistics include only those teachers registered in normal school programs conducted by the Department of Education; statistics are not available for those teachers enrolled in university courses. However, there was surely a considerable number of teachers taking such courses, for in the schools under the authority of the Catholic Committee in 1959-60, 3,917 teachers out of a total of 38,761

⁷⁰ Figures from L'Enseignement, September, 1961, p. 16.

⁷¹ Ibid., June-July, 1963, p. 1.

were holders of university degrees. Among the men, 15 per cent of the laymen and 16 per cent of those in religious orders were holders of a degree in education, and 15 per cent of the laymen and 20 per cent of those in religious orders were holders of a degree in another subject. Among women, the proportion of degree holders was considerably smaller; four per cent of the religious and 0.8 per cent of the laywomen were holders of a degree in education, and 2.5 per cent of the religious and one per cent of the laywomen possessed a degree other than that in education.⁷² In spite of this tremendous improvement in teacher qualifications, there still remained 3,737 teachers in the 1960-61 term who taught with a special permit, not being holders of a provincial certification.^{73,74} Concerning the whole matter of teacher certification, the following statement appeared in an article in L'Enseignement:

All this information obviously indicates that teachers are generally concerned with improving their qualifications, and that they are continuing to live up to their desire to be more competent in their profession. Their interest in cultural improvement gives the Department of Education and the higher teaching institutions encouragement in continuing their efforts to increase the calibre of the teaching profession.⁷⁵

In order to assist teachers in their efforts to achieve greater confidence in their profession, the government established sources of financial assistance. Bill 80, presented to the legislature on May 26, 1961, provided that:

⁷²Ibid., December 1961, p. 11. ⁷³Ibid., December 1962, p. 9.

⁷⁴All these figures include Catholic teachers, French and English speaking.

⁷⁵News item in L'Enseignement, September, 1961, p. 16.

. . . By official examinations, three hundred bursaries will be given each year to help in the recruiting and the training of teacher personnel, and to attract the interest of the elite among the graduates in the teaching field. These bursaries will range from \$1200 to \$3500 a year, and in all cases are renewable for three or four years.⁷⁶

Following this example many individual school boards gave special attention to the further training of their teachers. For example, the Montreal Catholic Board set a similar policy in 1962, and acting on it in 1963, granted

. . . Eighteen bursaries to school board personnel, with a total value of \$135,000 (an average of \$7500 for each bursary). This sum does not include group improvement courses, which for this year cost \$33,000. Interested teachers may elect to take post-graduate courses in science, literature, religion, educational administration, or pre-school education.⁷⁷

The bursaries represented the teachers' regular salaries plus their travelling expenses and tuition fees. They allowed the teacher to choose from a large field of higher educational institutions, such as Laval University, the University of Montreal, the University of Alberta, the University of Paris, and many others.

Selection of the teachers for these bursaries was contingent upon the individual's former university record, and interviews with professors at the University of Montreal. Le Devoir made the following comment concerning the new policy of distribution of financial assistance to Quebec teachers:

For about forty years the province has distributed bursaries to young people who want to improve themselves. . . but until this year there has been no consistent policy governing the manner in which these bursaries have been distributed. . . . Applicants'

⁷⁶News item in Le Devoir, May 26, 1961, p. 7.

⁷⁷News item in Le Devoir, February 9th, 1963, p. 3.

dossiers were remarkable for the number of political recommendations they contained. . . .⁷⁸

Working Conditions

It is generally agreed that well-trained teachers are a most important factor in any system of education, but for these teachers to function efficiently, they require proper working conditions. Among the many problems faced by teachers in French-Catholic Quebec the most contentious issues were professional status, tenure, teaching load and remuneration.

Professional status. The teachers' right to set up a professional association was never denied, but a number of laws made such associations powerless. "Loi pour assurer le progrès de l'éducation" passed in 1946 is an excellent example of such legislation. Article 25 of this law stated that in the case of a disagreement between a school board and its teachers, the teachers were forbidden to strike, and if they taught in a rural area, they were not allowed to seek arbitration. Typical of the reaction to this bill was one made by Jacques Cousineau when the bill was finally abrogated.

For the past thirteen years, some 15,000 teachers in rural communities have been deprived of the use of a means (a universally recognized right) without which the exercise of the fundamental right of association was made useless. This right to arbitration is absolutely indispensable within a framework of collective bargaining for agreement on working conditions. Arbitration constitutes the teachers' sole recourse given the school board's refusal to bargain.⁷⁹

⁷⁸News item in Le Devoir, February 25, 1963, p. 3.

⁷⁹Jacques Cousineau, "La Liberté aux instituteurs," Relations (March, 1960), p. 68.

Many groups, such as the Teachers' Association, the Assembly of the Bishops, and even the Quebec Federation of School Trustees, pressed the government to repeal this unjust law, but nothing was done until the fall of 1959. Bill 42, prepared by Yves Prévost and Antonio Barrette was introduced by the new premier Paul Sauvé, and made law. Jacques Cousineau had something quite different to say about this new legislation:

The right of arbitration for all teachers in rural areas is recognized by this regulation provided that they are authorized to do so by the administrative council of the Quebec Catholic Teachers' Association. In the present psychological and administrative circumstances--and here we are thinking about the great number of school boards, and consequently the number of syndicates or local branches of syndicates which hold bargaining certificates--one must recognize the wisdom of this limitation.⁸⁰

Another measure which improved the status of the Catholic Teachers' Association was the automatic membership in the association for all teachers in the province teaching in a French Catholic School. This, however, was not a compulsory membership, and those not wishing to join had to make their intentions known before the last day of June each year. This provision for automatic membership of all teachers in the Catholic Teachers' Association was made law by Sauvé's cabinet during the fall session of the legislature in 1959. According to L'Enseignement this new law was warmly welcomed by the teachers of the province.

According to a survey conducted within the general council (of the corporation of Quebec Catholic Teachers) at its meeting on December 28 (1960), the great majority, if not all, of the teachers of the province have warmly welcomed this law providing for automatic membership in the corporation. . . .At this time only 53

⁸⁰ Ibid., p. 69.

teachers have indicated that they are opposed to this membership, and have stated their intention not to join.⁸¹

Earlier it was stated that teachers' associations other than those of rural areas were not deprived of the right to arbitration. Legally and officially, this was true, but in actual fact even these associations were not free in the exercise of their rights. One of the best known examples of this fact was the twelve years of useless work done by the Alliance des Professeurs catholiques de Montréal. This association was deprived of its bargaining certificate in 1948, and it was only in December of 1959 that it regained this fundamental right. An editorial in Le Devoir gave an excellent summary of this situation:

Two days ago a two-year contract was signed between the Montreal Catholic School Commission and l'Alliance des Professeurs. This is the first time since the famous 1948 strike that the two groups have reached an agreement. To recall all the events that have occurred during the past twelve years would require the enumeration of a lengthy list of deplorable facts. . . . At the time when conditions were definitely becoming critical between l'Alliance and the Board, an authority of the Board told us: "If we were free, things would be settled within 24 hours." . . . To affirm that politics have corrupted the situation is not a slander, nor unfair judgement. M. Duplessis' spirit was there as it was in many fields, spreading a climate of disorder which did not end until his death. Twelve years lost in stupid quarrels is enough to point out again how the irrational whims of this capricious bachelor was harmful for the province of Quebec.⁸²

In the fall of 1962, a request of a nature almost unheard of before in the Province of Quebec was made of the teachers of the regional school board of Le Gardeur. The school board invited the teachers to work with the architects on their proposed secondary school.

⁸¹News item in L'Enseignement, January, 1961, p. 3.

⁸²Editorial in Le Devoir, December 24, 1960, p. 4.

The preliminary drawings of the architects were studied room by room, feature by feature, by the commissioners and the school principals. Meanwhile, visits were conducted to several operating schools in the area in order to observe the advantages and disadvantages of various different arrangements. This preliminary work prompted . . . (the architectural bureau) to draw up a revised plan. Religious and lay teachers were then invited to discuss the new plan. . . . During these studies, commissioners, principals and teacher all worked together in order to arrive at the design of a truly functional school.⁸³

In December of 1961, the Montreal School Commission set up a new formulation of norms used in the evaluation of its teaching staff. Whereas the old system judged all teachers by evaluating them with a mark based on a percentile of one hundred, the new system simply placed teachers in one of two categories: satisfactory, or not satisfactory. Those teachers placed in the not satisfactory category were classified into categories of weak and very weak. In the case of those considered to be weak, their principals were expected to notify them of their deficiency and to help them to improve. For those considered to be in the very weak category, one of these alternatives was to be enforced: loss of salary, loss of seniority, or dismissal. By establishing this new method of teacher evaluation, the school board hoped to deal with teachers in a more adult fashion, to improve the teacher-administrator relationship, to emphasize the counselling role of the principal, and to avoid the loss of time.

Tenure. With the right of association established as a practical reality for Quebec teachers, the next important item on their agenda was security. One of the most criticized articles of Quebec

⁸³News item in L'Enseignement, January, 1963, p. 20.

school law was the infamous article 232, which reads as follows:

School boards, after having decided by resolution at a regularly held meeting not to re-engage for the following year a teacher already in their service, shall, before the 1st of June preceding the expiration of the engagement of such teachers, notify him in writing of their intention to terminate the said engagement; but need not in such notice assign any cause therefor.⁸⁴

It was the phrase, "but need not assign any cause therefor," that was the bone of contention. This gave the trustees complete freedom to dismiss any teacher for any reason, or for no reason at all.

For many years the Catholic Teachers' Association had opposed the dismissal of many excellent teachers, some for such dubious reasons as those mentioned by L'Enseignement in its special issue against Article 232 in May of 1962.

Teachers have been dismissed. . .for refusing to go to a dance given by people in the neighborhood of the school. . .for refusing to let a trustee's son sing in the school choir. . .because he cost the school board too much money as he had too many years experience, and a younger teacher could do the job at less cost. . .because he organized a teachers' association.⁸⁵

Because the law did not require that sufficient reason be given for the dismissal of a teacher, the preceding reasons were not officially stated by the board members. One could, however, make a fairly accurate guess in many cases. For instance, no reason was given for the dismissal of four teachers in Senneterre in 1962. However, in all cases the teachers dismissed had more than ten years' teaching experience, whereas the remaining twelve teachers at the school, all having less than ten years'

⁸⁴Province of Quebec, Department of Education, The Education Act of the Province of Quebec (revised to March, 1958) (Quebec, 1958), p. 97.

⁸⁵News items in L'Enseignement, June-July, 1962, pp. 2-4.

teaching experience, were invited to teach the following year.

Such policies can hardly be regarded as beneficial to the teaching profession. An editorial in Le Soleil asked how it is possible

. . . For a teacher to command the rightful community respect that must be his, and to use his authority properly, when he feels that in order to protect his job he must not displease one or another member of the school board. What kind of enthusiasm can he bring to his educational work when he does not know what will happen tomorrow. . . ? His very experience may compel him to go elsewhere because the school board can hire younger teachers at less cost. It appears that such are the policies followed by many communities in this province. It is possible to show many other disadvantages and abuses that could be the result of Article 232 of the school law.⁸⁶

On July 4, 1962, the Quebec legislature amended Article 232 with the addition of two paragraphs:

However, in dismissing a teacher they (the trustees) have hired for at least a period of eight months during the two preceding years, they (the trustees) must give written reasons for their action if requested to do so in writing by the teacher.

These reasons for dismissal, given in good faith, cannot lead to court action, but the teacher is permitted to submit his complaint to arbitration according to the contract, describing the relationship between the teachers and the board; or if there is no contract, or if such actions are not spelled out by the contract, then according to the law regarding municipal and school corporations and their employees.⁸⁷

In summary, the actual legislation regarding teachers' security states that during the first two years the teachers are in a state of probation, and at their request they are entitled to receive written reasons for their dismissal after they have achieved two eight-month periods of

⁸⁶ Editorial in Le Soleil, reproduced in L'Enseignement, June-July, 1962, p. 3.

⁸⁷ News item in L'Enseignement, August-September, 1962, p. 3.

service for the same board. Moreover, if they deem it necessary, they may submit a protest against the dismissal to an arbitration tribunal.

Teaching load. On March 12 of 1962, the Quebec government published its famous statement regarding the norms expected of teachers in the province. It was on that date that Joseph Page, Deputy Minister of Youth, sent a circular to Quebec school boards in which he stated that in order to plan the school finances for the province it was necessary for school boards to respect certain norms in regard to the number of pupils per classroom and the number of teachers per school. That same day, the Minister of Youth, in a speech to the Montreal Chamber of Commerce, gave a public explanation of the action taken by his ministry.

There were three major points dealt with in this government statement of norms: the replacement of vice-principals by secretaries in small schools, and by department heads in larger schools; the establishment of an average of thirty students per classroom in elementary schools, and thirty-five per classroom in secondary schools wherever possible; and the setting up of a minimum of twenty-six teaching periods per week per teacher at the secondary school level.

Gérin-Lajoie, the Minister of Youth, stated that his concern for education in the province was limited to the proper administration of educational finances and hence it was his fullest intention to enforce the norms suggested by his ministry in order to make maximum use of all educational facilities in the province.

There was a mixed reaction to these norms. The president of the Quebec Federation of Catholic School Boards said:

From the administrative point of view, the Quebec Federation of Catholic School Boards cannot see any objections to the norms set up by the Ministry of Youth in regard to the number of pupils per classroom, and the number of working hours per teacher.⁸⁸

However, the majority of the teachers were not in favor of the norms. Rural teachers and those in smaller centres could see a great improvement in their working conditions with the implementation of the norms, and hence were in favor of them. But the Minister of Youth was not supported by that majority of teachers working in the larger cities. These teachers, of course, did not criticize the principle of establishing norms throughout the province, but instead found fault with the manner in which they were set up, and the standards which they required.

The government cannot avoid its obligation to justify, both to the legislature and to the people of the province as a whole, a sane budget, and maximum efficiency within the system. . . .We have succeeded, at least we hope, in achieving our aims in a very important manner; that being to separate the Minister from the "administrative machinery" in such a manner that he will be able to stand as an arbitrator between the two opponents in this crisis, the opponents in this case being the administrative machinery and the academic body. . . .The new norms are nothing but a mathematical formula based on the importance of the dollar, and do not give sufficient consideration to the unacceptable burdens imposed on the teachers.⁸⁹

This statement and several others like it were made by various groups of teachers, including the Directors of Studies for classical colleges, the Catholic Teachers' Corporation, the Normal School Teachers' Association, the Association of Lay Teachers of Classical Courses, the Protestant Teachers' Association, the Federation of Teaching Brothers,

⁸⁸News item in Le Devoir, March 21, 1963, p. 16.

⁸⁹Editorial in L'Enseignement, April, 1963, p. 2.

the Association of Teaching Sisters, the Association of Vocational School Teachers, the Association of Education, the Association of School Principals, and the Association of Professors at Laval University. Similar views were expressed in many papers and journals, for example:

The combatants in this "battle of norms" would be well advised to consider the following points:

1. The provincial authority which controls educational finances has the right to establish general norms regarding the use of school facilities and the employment of personnel in order to prevent their misuse by regional and local administrations and to ensure the best employment of the financial and human resources.
2. However, these norms should be flexible, and should not be established without first consulting responsible people in the school boards and the teachers' syndicates. . . .
3. Financial control, if it does not remain within limits, soon becomes interference in school administration and even in pedagogical direction. . . .
4. In education the good of the children should always be a prime concern, consequently the financial aspect of education should always take second place to those of pedagogical necessity and administration. . . .
5. Education in Quebec requires a policy of broadmindedness and vigorous planning, always directed toward the needs of the human being. Children and teachers are to take precedence over buildings and furnishings. Economy is of course important, but it must not result in a lowering of the quality of education.⁹⁰

Under such pressure the Minister of Youth decided to further clarify his department regulations, and to review the norms. On April 4 of 1963, a committee was created by the Minister for this purpose. Among the educators on this committee were representatives of the directors of studies, of the French-Catholic teachers, of the teaching brothers, of the teaching sisters, of the English-Catholic teachers, and of the Protestant teachers. The administrative half of this committee was composed of representatives of the school boards, both

⁹⁰ Editorial in Les Relations, 269 (May, 1963), p. 118.

Catholic and Protestant, of the Minister of Youth, and of the Department of Education. This committee was to function in an advisory capacity to the Minister of Youth.

During the April 25 sitting of the Quebec legislature, in the absence of the Minister of Youth, Premier Jean Lesage disclosed the contents of a circular which was based on the findings of this committee in regard to the question of norms, and which was being sent to all the school boards in the province. According to Le Devoir, this latest circular gave:

. . . A supplementary explanation of the extent and meaning of the regulations (of the former circular). . . (and moreover), it corrected the various interpretations given by a number of people, some of which were too broad, others too restricted. . . . This latest government circular advised that a study committee was being established for the purpose of carrying out additional necessary research on schools and classroom organization. This new committee will be similar to that which aided in the preparation of the present circular. Representatives of the educators and the administrators will join together for the purpose of analysing the results of the proposed norms' enforcement, and to advise the authorities of other measures to be taken to make better use of both teaching personnel and school facilities. Educational and administrative groups working together to solve the extremely complex problems faced by the reorganization of our school system on the basis of logic and efficiency is an unprecedented development in Quebec education.⁹¹

With the exception of a few minor suggestions this new circular did not stipulate any major changes at the elementary school level. The average number of pupils per classroom in elementary schools was to remain at thirty. However, for secondary schools the general rule of thirty-five pupils per classroom was slightly modified to allow for a more flexible personnel employment: ". . . Secondary schools having

⁹¹ News item in Le Devoir, April 27, 1963, pp. 1-2.

sufficient students and at least four grades (eighth to eleventh) should have a ratio of three teachers per two classrooms with a total of 65 students.⁹² Another feature of the norms of the secondary school level was the fact that they were to include all certified personnel in the school, principals and vice-principals not being excepted as was the case in the past.

Status of lay teachers. The status of lay teachers was greatly improved by two measures which were radical departures from the old Quebec tradition which regarded as unthinkable the idea that lay people could fill certain positions. The first of these changes was warmly welcomed by the teachers; it being the appointment of laymen rather than members of the clergy to the position of principal at the two male normal schools in Montreal.

In supporting these appointments, his Eminence Paul-Emile Cardinal Léger opened the way for greater lay participation in these two important training institutions. It should be recalled that last spring his Eminence advocated a larger lay representation in secondary and superior education: the innovation applauded today is a logical outcome of his thought. It is to be hoped that many will imitate this initiative.⁹³

In some aspects, the second change has to be considered an even greater departure from the past. For the first time in a Montreal school, eight religious teachers were members of the teaching staff under the direction of a lay principal. In the past the religious always held the supervisory positions in any schools where they taught, even though

⁹²Province de Québec, Ministère de la Jeunesse, Organisation des classes, Complément à la circulaire du 12 mars 1963. Québec, April 26, 1963, p. 4.

⁹³News item in L'Enseignement, September, 1961, p. 21.

they composed but a small percentage of the staff. The superior of these eight religious stated:

Considering that the number of available religious is insufficient to operate our own schools, and yet on the other hand wishing to keep at least part of our apostolate in parochial schools we are offering two teaching religious who will willingly, under lay direction, collaborate in the educational work of two parochial schools.⁹⁴

Remuneration. One of the most, if not the most sensitive aspects of Quebec education was the matter of finance. This was particularly true in regard to teachers' salaries. There was hardly anyone with an interest in education who did not insist on the necessity for an increase in the wages of Quebec teachers. In July of 1962 Gérin-Lajoie set up a committee to study working conditions of the province's teachers, and on this occasion he stated:

The present government, as has been amply illustrated, is greatly concerned to raise the standards of the teaching profession. . .and this must be done at two levels: firstly, at the level of teacher qualifications, and secondly, at the level of teacher working conditions, particularly in regard to appropriate salary. . . .As early as last fall new salary scales were in effect for normal school professors and school inspectors. . . fields directly related to the administrative duties of our ministry. . . .The time has now come to pursue this same policy in regard to teachers in the employ of local school boards. . . as there are considerable disparities existing between various regions at the present time. . .and for this reason I am authorized by the cabinet to set up a joint committee of educators and administrators to study this problem.⁹⁵

As a result of this government policy, measures were put into effect to improve the financial lot of Quebec teachers. A study of the Figure 1 dealing with the average salary of Quebec teachers from 1951

⁹⁴ News item in Le Devoir, May 3, 1963, p. 3.

⁹⁵ News item in Le Devoir, July 7, 1962, p. 3.

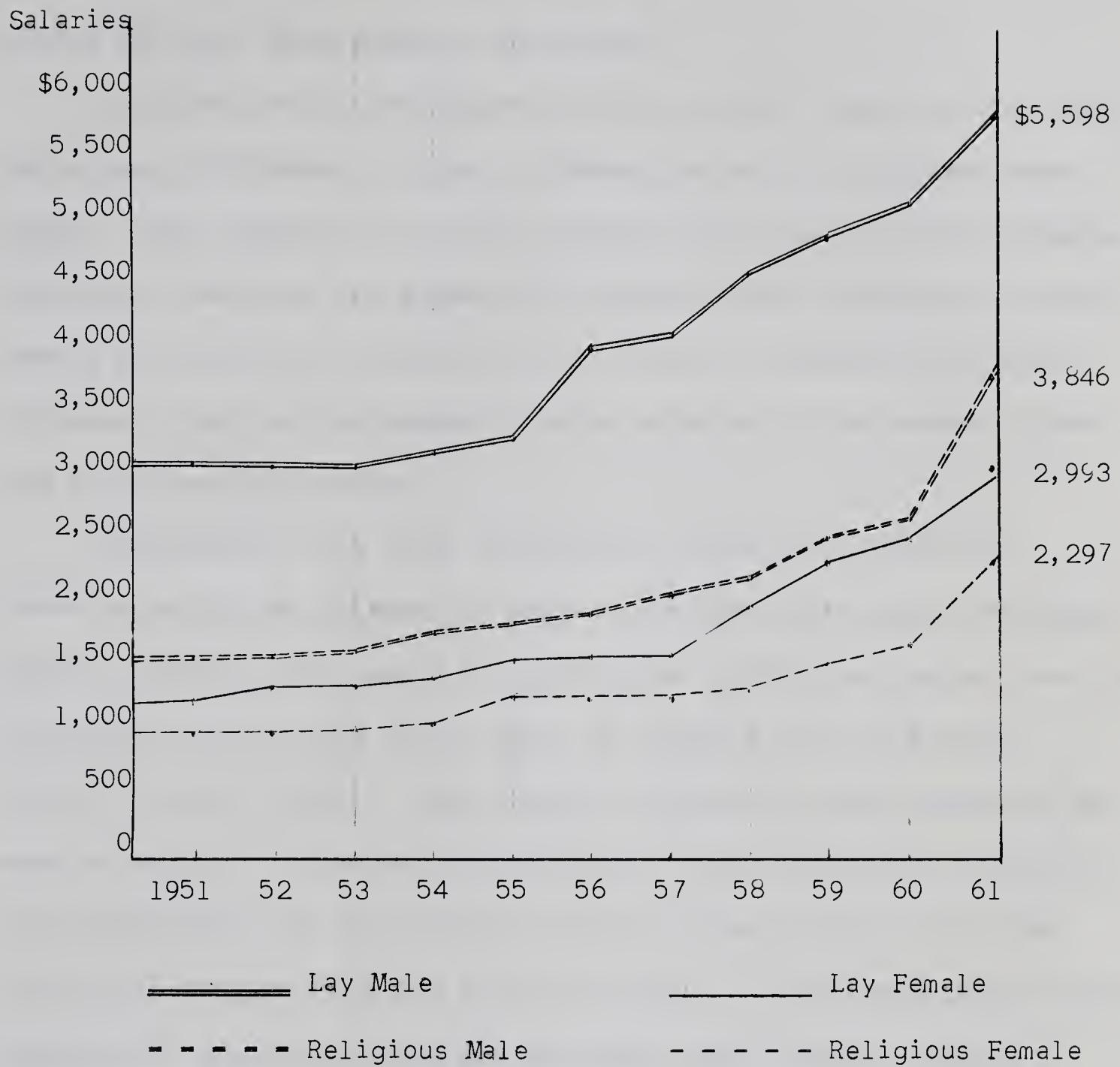


FIGURE 1
EVOLUTION OF THE MEAN TEACHERS' SALARIES FROM 1951 TO 1961^a

^aFigures from: L'Enseignement, December, 1961, p. 17; Province de Québec, Rapport du Surintendant de l'Instruction publique (Quebec: Queen's Printer, 1962), p. 216.

to 1961 would easily show an increase of these salaries, particularly during the last three years of the period.

A second point that becomes evident in this figure is that there was a great difference in salary between teachers of different categories. Many communities tried to improve this situation; for example, teachers in Montreal and Quebec City received equal salaries at certain levels of seniority. This point is mentioned to emphasize the great difference that existed between teacher salaries in the larger cities and in the smaller centres.

According to the study conducted by the Quebec Chamber of Commerce, which was released in February of 1963, more than fifty-four million dollars a year would be required to standardize teacher salaries throughout the province on the basis of salaries paid in Montreal during the year 1960-61. This Chamber of Commerce study suggested two ways to achieve this salary equalization. The first method called for the establishment of two different salary scales, one for the urban districts, and the other for rural districts. In the beginning the differences in salaries between men and women would remain. After a certain period of time there would be equal pay for men and women, and in a third step salaries would be standardized for both the rural and the urban districts. The second method of progressive salary equalization suggested by the Chamber called for each local board to successively eliminate the three sources of inequality: basic salaries, annual increases and maximum salaries within their own local system. Salary inequalities being eliminated at the local level, the next step would be a provincial uniformity in salaries.

At the present time efforts are still being made by the provincial government and others with a concern to raise the professional status of teachers, to implement these suggestions for salary equalization made by the Quebec Chamber of Commerce. In any event there is still a great deal of work to be done, especially in the smaller communities, to achieve the goal best summarized in a statement by Paul-Emile, Cardinal Léger:

Teachers have the right to professional salaries. Teaching is not a common occupation, but rather it is a profession that demands a freedom from concern for the daily necessities in order to permit the mind to be devoted to its more essential tasks.⁹⁶

A number of major improvements were introduced into the retirement pension plan at the provincial level. For the first time in seventeen years the 1960 session of the provincial legislature, passed a number of amendments regarding this matter. The principle amendment to the pension plan legislation allowed for the recognition for pension plan purposes of as much as ten years of teaching for the formal religious who continued to teach as a layman, instead of but five years as had been the previous case. This same privilege was extended to the teachers teaching in private institutions within the province, or those teaching or studying outside the province under an agreement with the superintendent.

During the spring session of 1961, the provincial government increased the amounts paid to the retired teachers under the Pension Plan. Teachers who received less than \$3,000 in full pension, or less

⁹⁶News item in Le Devoir, October 2, 1962, p. 19.

than \$1,500 in half pension, were granted an increase of three to thirty per cent, depending on the date of their retirement.⁹⁷

The most recent amendments to the pension plan legislation were passed in July, 1962. One removed the maximum of ten years recognition for former religious teachers, or those teachers in foreign or private institutions which had been established in 1960. The new formula based the years of recognition entirely upon the teachers' years of service in Quebec. Another important amendment, and one that was the centre of a great deal of controversy, dealt with retired teachers who were working part-time for an institution receiving provincial grants. The pensions of these people were to be reduced in proportion to the amount of money they earned as part-time teachers.

⁹⁷ Figures from L'Enseignement, June, 1961, p. 24.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND COMMENTS

This final chapter will be concerned with two major topics: a summary and conclusions pertaining to the findings of this study, and a suggested answer to the fourth question in the sub-purposes (Who is responsible for any changes in Quebec education? The government? The Church? Various societies? The people?), as well as suggestions for further studies on the past and present state of education in the province of Quebec.

Summary of Findings and Conclusions

Is there sufficient evidence to indicate a change or new trend in Quebec education since 1959? Only time will supply the final answer, but the evidence to warrant an affirmative answer to the question seems to be quite well-supported by a number of facts brought to light in the study, a brief summary of which follows.

In regard to the matter of central authority, we have seen that there was a shift of power in educational affairs from the Secretary of the province to the Minister of Youth. The government became directly involved in administrative matters, and by implementing better coordination and planning, the Minister exercised a strong influence on educational trends in the province. It was also shown that educational legislation enacted since 1959 indicated a clear desire of the government for objectivity, universality, and absence of political interference

in enforcing the regulations. It was also clear that the government intended to put democratic theory into practice with the establishment of a Royal Commission and the "preaching trips" of the Minister of Youth throughout the province.

At the local level, a number of beneficial changes were made. The two most helpful changes from the point of view of the local school boards were the increases in grants, and the freedom given them from political interference. The additional step of initiating overall planning and centralization developed the local school boards into much more functional units. This change involved the setting up of an educational map of the province, and the establishment of regional schools and Youth Cities. A more democratic control over education at the local level was ensured by extending the right to elect school commissioners, a right formerly reserved for property-owners. The shift to a tripartite (layman-government-church) administration of colleges, which were formerly controlled by the church alone, also indicated a trend toward democratization.

From the point of view of the students, some of the major developments were the provision of free textbooks, the new compulsory attendance law, and the monthly allowance, which prompted students to complete their education. The increase in number and value of the bursaries given to students was also pointed out. The primary school program was completely remodelled, resulting in three two-year cycles. The secondary school program was greatly improved in two ways: a more diversified program of courses was offered, and the contents of these courses was adapted to modern life. The implementation of a number of teaching

aids was also of great benefit to the students.

There is additional evidence of a new trend in Quebec education to be found in the improvements made in teachers' status. The physical facilities for teacher training in the province were modernized with the centralization and remodelling of the existing normal schools. Higher standards for teacher certification, and increased bursaries for advanced training resulted in much higher teacher qualifications. The professional status of teachers was reinforced by a functional right of association and by automatic membership in the association. At the same time teacher tenure was made more professional with amendments to Article 232 of the School Law. In some cases there was a great deal of controversy regarding the norms setting out teacher tasks, but from the overall point of view, they indicated an attempt to put the whole educational system of the province on a more efficient basis. The status of lay teachers was made equal to that of religious. Great efforts were made to solve the traditional problem of teachers, that being remuneration, and finally the retirement pension plan was greatly streamlined.

Comments

That there is a new trend in Quebec education now seems quite evident: and it would appear equally evident that underlying all these changes there is a spirit of revival and progress working toward the realization of a new Quebec. But what individual, group, or society provided the impetus for these changes, or generated this renaissance spirit in the province: Was it the government? The Church? or the

people at large? Of course, a detailed answer to this question could only be the result of a far more important and penetrating study than this present thesis. However, even at the risk of over-simplification, it should be stated that the readings which form the basis of this work definitely indicated that no one single group or individual was responsible, but instead the combined action of different elements of the Quebec society initiated and maintained this educational renaissance in French-Catholic Quebec.

The action of the government was clearly seen throughout all phases. The Minister of Youth became more and more involved in educational policy; he made it apparent that it was his desire to unite all educational matters under his responsibility, and he actively promoted centralization and scientific planning of all educational resources. But even though the government of Quebec since 1959 has been very active in bringing about educational changes, was the government itself responsible for its own activity? Maclean's Magazine pointed out that:

The first thing one must understand about Jean Lesage, is that in opposition to the late Maurice Duplessis, for instance, Lesage is not the political master of Quebec. He is the chief servant of a new and strong political trend in which party lines or class lines are unknown. . .Jean Lesage cannot ignore this. . .and remain the chief of Quebec.⁹⁷

The apparent conclusion, insofar as education is concerned, is that this ". . .new and strong political trend. . ." is one in which the government must pay attention to the long oppressed popular need for evolution, change and improvement.

⁹⁷Editorial in Maclean's Magazine, June 1, 1963, p. 4.

For centuries the wishes of the Roman Catholic Church in Quebec have been the commands of the people of the province, and it was shown in this work that a number of new educational policies were promoted by Church leaders, for example, the appointment of lay trustees in Montreal and Quebec City by their respective archbishops, or the new form of administration introduced in a number of classical colleges by the clerical authorities. But like the government, the Church may also have been motivated by new insights into the Quebec situation. Roger Magnuson pointed out that:

Surprisingly, the support for a greater lay role in Quebec education stems. . .from a few clerical leaders. Paul-Emile Cardinal Léger, Archbishop of Montreal, has been the leading force in calling for a new understanding and collaboration between the clergy and laity not only in education but in other fields as well. . . .Admittedly, Cardinal Leger is a realist for he realizes that his church. . .cannot prepare enough priests, brothers, and sisters to adequately handle the exploding school population. . . .Leger's gesture of liberalism may conceivably be the result of his shrewd appraisal of the trend of education in Quebec. It is possible that he realizes that secularism will inevitably increase and in order to prevent a schism between church and state in matters of education, he seeks the sympathetic support of the laity. Perhaps he fears that, by taking a hard line. . .the church. . .might be denounced as an enemy of progress and democracy.⁹⁸

The inevitable conclusion is that the government, with the Church, prompted by the people, has brought about an educational revolution in Quebec. At one time, Louis Hémon, in his novel, Maria Chapdelaine, said: "On this land of Quebec naught shall die and naught suffer change." But times have indeed changed, and now Peter Gzowski says:

⁹⁸Roger P. Magnuson, "Secular Trends in French Canadian Education," Comparative Education Review, VII:1 (June, 1963), pp. 43-46.

French and Catholic people of Quebec. . .are changing faster than any group of people on this continent. What they are changing from, as much as anything else, is their consent to domination by the Catholic Church and clergy of their schools, their social ideas, and in some ways even their politics.⁹⁹

⁹⁹ Peter Gzowski, "The Cardinal and His Church in a Year of Conflict," Maclean's Magazine (Maclean-Hunter Publishing Co., Ltd., Toronto), July 14, 1962, p. 13.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ORIGINAL FRENCH TEXTS OF THE QUOTATIONS USED IN THIS WORK

1. Un ministre résume en disant que ce n'est plus un homme seul qui travaillera mais une équipe.
2. Après le long sommeil duplessiste, les sessions de 1959-60 apparaissent comme un soulagement. Si l'on oublie le phénomène des partis, il est singulier de constater que les lois adoptées cette année accentuent le réveil.
Les choses se passent. . .comme si les Libéraux continuaient et élargissaient l'œuvre de Paul Sauvé, tandis que l'Union Nationale revient au duplessisme.
3. Depuis la disparition de l'hiver que l'on sait, le syndicalisme des salariés québécois continue de s'orienter vers un printemps prometteur.
5. Beaucoup de gens et nous en sommes, sont souvent en désaccord avec les idées exprimées dans Le Devoir. . .l'extraordinaire tribune libre qu'il est effectivement. . .réflète l'état d'âme de notre peuple . . .Le Devoir est nécessaire aux Canadiens-Français.
6. Le Devoir demeure dans la meilleure tradition du journalisme catholique. . .il lui faut pour cela une liberté totale à l'égard de toute contrainte extérieure (Etat, partis politiques, puissances d'argent ou de groupes etc.) comme de toute poussée intérieure (préjugés, passions). Cette liberté doit s'étendre même à l'égard de l'Eglise entendue au sens des puissances de l'Eglise: hiérarchie, communautés religieuses. . .Le Devoir demeure donc "l'irremplaçable Devoir" selon le mot du chanoine Lionel Groulx.
9. L'autorité suprême en matière d'éducation, c'est l'évêque.
10. L'action de l'état fut plutôt discrète. Toutefois, les gouverneurs et les intendants ont appuyé, en toutes circonstances, le pasteur de la Nouvelle-France dans son zèle pour répandre l'instruction.
13. C'est pour éviter le contrôle absolu du Gouvernement qu'on a institué il y a plus de cent ans le Conseil de l'Instruction publique et que l'Etat lui-même lui a confié le soin d'assurer la direction pédagogique de l'enseignement alors dispensé par les institutions publiques.
Préoccupés avant tout, à cette époque et par la suite, de sauvegarder l'indépendance de ce Conseil à l'égard de la politique, nous avons pris l'habitude de mettre en relief cet aspect original de notre système scolaire, sans mentionner suffisamment qu'en fait les

aspects administratifs de l'action de l'Etat en matière éducative continuaient à être assumés par le Gouvernement lui-même. Sans doute, est-ce cette attitude, parfaitement explicable dans le contexte de notre histoire, qui nous a empêchés de prendre une conscience claire de la distinction fondamentale entre la régie académique et la direction administrative de nos écoles, sur laquelle reposait effectivement toute la structure des organismes supérieurs de notre enseignement. . . .

C'est dans le cadre d'une telle différenciation entre le rôle académique du Conseil de l'Instruction publique et le rôle administratif ou financier du Gouvernement, que la question de confier à un seul ministère les aspects administratifs des affaires éducatives s'est posée depuis quelques années et que nous l'avons résolue dans les cadres du ministère de la Jeunesse.

Cette question était avant tout un problème de coordination administrative dont la solution était rendue nécessaire par le développement et la multiplication des services éducatifs au sein du Gouvernement depuis plusieurs années. . . .

Un plan coordonné des politiques administratives aussi bien que des politiques académiques est la condition essentielle de l'effort nécessaire pour préparer de façon rationnelle notre Province à faire face à ses responsabilités dans le domaine de l'éducation.

14. L'Etat doit prendre l'initiative des politiques scolaires et il ne peut se contenter de tenir un rôle de coordonateur passif.

15. Il importe de toute nécessité que les deniers mis à la disposition des commissions scolaires par l'impôt foncier et par les subventions gouvernementales soient employés le plus économiquement et le plus efficacement possible. . . . Les fonctionnaires du ministère de la jeunesse, lorsqu'ils étudieront le budget des commissions scolaires pour l'année financière 1963-64, vérifieront si les normes qui viennent d'être fixées auront été respectées.

16. Va-t-on s'effrayer de voir l'Etat s'occuper davantage de l'enseignement? Ce serait à tort. D'abord il s'est depuis longtemps et progressivement installé dans ce secteur. Mais il l'a fait autant qu'il l'a pu en se cachant. Il y exerçait une influence souvent clandestine. Par le moyen des subventions, des régimes particuliers, il s'avancait caché; c'est à notre avis un processus dangereux. Car son emprise est alors difficile à délimiter, à préciser à juger.

Un régime clair vaudra mieux, préservera plus efficacement la liberté et l'indépendance des éducateurs pourvu qu'il soit sagement établi.

17. Le gouvernement actuel a mis sur pied et fait adopter le programme le plus considérable d'aide à l'enseignement jamais présenté à Québec. Cette législation, trois mots, semble-t-il la résument et la caractérisent: universalité, générosité et régularité. . . (le gouvernement) établit ces subventions d'après des normes précises et des barèmes fixes qui en assureront la régularité, laisseront moins de place à l'arbitraire et diminueront sensiblement les nécessaires pélerinages à Québec.

18. Si l'on compare la situation nouvelle à celle d'hier l'amélioration est remarquable. Elle l'est dans plusieurs sens et particulièrement à cause de la volonté qui s'y exprime de respecter la liberté des institutions.

Les subventions . . . ont à peu près toutes le même caractère distinctif: elles sont statutaires. . . automatiques. . . pas d'amitiés politiques, pas de patronage pas d'influences sousterraines: c'est le barème qui règle le montant de la subvention. Ainsi l'arbitraire est supprimé. . . Nous en félicitons en particulier M. Yves Prévost, le secrétaire provincial dont elle paraît être en grande partie l'œuvre personnelle.

19. Les commissions scolaires transigeront directement avec le D.I.P. ou le Ministère de la Jeunesse sans passer par le député et par le "patroneux."

Cette politique nouvelle devrait. . . faire disparaître des lettres rédigées par le département des paragraphes comme celui-ci "grâce aux démarches du député (ou du patroneux) Untel le gouvernement de l'Union Nationale est heureux de vous annoncer qu'une subvention a été accordée." . . . la tradition voulant que les chèques gouvernementaux aux commissions scolaires soient envoyés aux députés ministériels ou parfois même aux "patroneux."

20. Le but de ces séances, comme M. Gérin-Lajoie l'a expliqué samedi soir à l'association libérale était de permettre au ministre et à ses collaborateurs immédiats de constater sur place "les situations concrètes dans lesquelles notre système d'éducation se développe pour pouvoir en tenir compte. . . dans les décisions législatives et administratives, et aussi d'expliquer aux gens de la région le sens et la portée des réformes scolaires, particulièrement du développement des écoles secondaires au niveau régional."

21. Attendu qu'il existe de multiples problèmes à tous les niveaux de l'enseignement et qu'il importe en conséquence de faire effectuer par une commission royale d'enquête une étude impartiale et complète de la situation de l'enseignement dans la province.

Attendu que la nécessité d'une telle étude a été signalée dès 1956 par la Commission Royale d'Enquête sur les problèmes constitutionnels.

Attendu que cette recommandation a été suivie de nombreuses demandes formulées de toutes parts. . . le ministre de la jeunesse est chargé de l'exécution de la présente loi.

22. Les commissions scolaires constituent un rouage essentiel au fonctionnement démocratique de notre système d'enseignement.

24. Depuis la Confédération, et même avant, le système scolaire de la province s'est en effet développé soit par des séries d'amendements à la loi de l'instruction publique, soit par l'addition de nouvelles lois; de plus, la jurisprudence établie dans les cours de justice est venue ajouter divers éléments d'interprétation.

Il n'est donc pas étonnant de trouver une certaine incohérence,

et souvent des contradictions, dans une législation qui s'étend sur une période de plus d'un siècle. Il faut beaucoup de patience et une étude approfondie pour s'y retrouver dans ce labyrinthe de lois diverses et d'amendements subsequents. . . .

Le temps est venu de réviser toute cette législation pour la fondre en une loi organique de l'éducation.

25. Le surintendant répartit et distribue, chaque année, la part afférente aux catholiques romains comme suit:

Toute corporation y ayant droit, reçoit pour une année scolaire, une subvention variant entre cent dollars et quinze cents dollars par classe, dans la proportion représentée par le montant du revenu des taxes scolaires foncières imposées aux contribuables par rapport au montant du revenu total des taxes scolaires foncières imposées tant aux contribuables qu'aux corporations et compagnies légalement constituées, d'après le rapport financier de l'année scolaire précédente exigé par la Loi de l'instruction publique, conformément au barème suivant:

Nonobstant les dispositions qui précédent, le montant de la subvention qu'une corporation peut recevoir en vertu de la présente loi, ne doit excéder soixante-quinze pour cent du montant des traitements du personnel enseignant. . . .

Pour les fins de l'article 6 de la présente loi, le nombre de classes sous le contrôle d'une corporation est établi en divisant par vingt-cinq le chiffre de la présence moyenne annuelle des élèves de toutes les écoles publiques en activité dans la municipalité scolaire; tout residu de dix ou plus comptant pour une classe.

Telle présence moyenne, rapportée aux journaux officiels d'inscription et d'appel de l'année scolaire précédente, est basée sur le nombre de jours de classe prescrits par les règlements du comité catholique ou du comité protestant du conseil de l'instruction publique.

Si le total des élèves d'une municipalité scolaire n'atteint pas vingt-cinq, la corporation scolaire reçoit une subvention proportionnelle au montant qu'elle aurait reçue si elle avait eu le minimum d'élèves requis.

26. A l'avenir dans la province de Québec, quand il sera question d'éducation à tous les niveaux. . . il ne faudra jamais que l'on puisse dire que tel projet ne peut se réaliser faute de moyens matériels. Il faut qu'à l'avenir nous ayons simplement à chercher la voie la plus rapide, le chemin le plus direct pour atteindre le but, mais que jamais il ne soit question d'empêchement matériel.

28. Il est devenu évident que l'éducation est un secteur de notre économie et qu'à ce titre, elle doit répondre à deux exigences: celle de la rentabilité et celle de sa coordination avec les objectifs économiques globaux.

D'ailleurs, les Québécois consacraient, en 1961-62, 8.5 pour cent de leurs revenus personnels à l'éducation, comparativement à 5.6 pour cent en 1957. Le gouvernement estime qu'il est de son devoir d'assurer l'emploi efficace et la répartition rationnelle des richesses qui lui sont confiées.

29. Une école secondaire atteint le point de rentabilité maximum lorsqu'elle compte 1,000 élèves: l'on ne peut espérer un tel nombre d'inscriptions que dans un territoire ayant une population de 40,000 à 50,000 habitants. . . .

Pour organiser une commission scolaire régionale, on tient compte de divers facteurs, par exemple:

1. Distance: maximum d'une heure de transport

L'expérience des transports actuels démontre qu'il est possible d'organiser un transport quotidien qui ne nuit aucunement à la santé des élèves et à leur bon rendement scolaire lorsque le trajet peut être effectué en moins d'une heure, ce qui veut dire, en général, une distance de 25 à 35 milles selon les conditions locales et l'état des routes.

2. Rayonnement autour d'un pôle naturel

L'on choisit généralement comme centre régional d'un territoire donné la ville la plus populeuse ou le point où se trouve la plus forte densité de population.

32. Le gouvernement provincial se propose de favoriser l'érection de cités scolaires tel qu'il en existe présentement en France depuis 5 ans environ. . . . Ces cités où les étudiants sont réunis sur un même campus facilitent la démocratisation de l'enseignement en rapprochant davantage les élèves des cours classiques, scientifiques, agricoles. . . .

33. La cité des jeunes de Vaudreuil est un essai d'intégration et de coordination. Son organisation est concue en fonction d'économies de construction, d'administration et d'opération. . . . La concentration des édifices et de la population étudiante justifiera des services pédagogiques, culturels et sportifs qu'aucune institutions ne pourra offrir isolément.

35. . . . De comités consultatifs régionaux, formés d'éducateurs, d'administrateurs scolaires, de représentants des groupes économiques et sociaux, qui joueraient, auprès de la commission régionale un rôle analogue à celui de Conseil supérieur de l'éducation auprès du futur ministre de l'éducation.

36. Nous n'accepterons aucune subvention gouvernementale, a-t-il précisé. Nous sommes assez adultes pour vivre par nos propres moyens.

37. Promouvoir l'éducation intégrale de la jeunesse; rendre les familles conscientes de leurs prérogatives et de leurs responsabilités en matière d'éducation; favoriser une collaboration étroite entre parents et maîtres, et les corps publics d'éducation.

38. Que la C.E.C.M. comprenne 15 commissaires dont sept seraient élus par les parents (par l'intermédiaire d'un collège électoral) et dont un autre serait élu par l'ensemble du personnel enseignant à l'emploi de la C.E.C.M.

Les sept autres commissaires continueraient d'être nommés: trois par l'archevêque de Montréal, trois par le gouvernement provincial et un par la Cité de Montréal.

39. On a voulu que ce groupe de 7 membres aie la majorité au conseil d'administration. On a voulu faire participer les éducateurs à l'administration du collège (2 membres & recteur). . . . Le troisième soucis a été de faire participer également L'Etat et l'Eglise par la nomination du délégué de l'archevêque et celui du ministre de la jeunesse. . . . Les règlements adoptés par le conseil d'administration seront sujets à l'approbation du ministre et de l'archevêque.

40. Le clergé abandonnera, dès le mois de juin, la responsabilité financière et académique de cette institution et les fonctions administratives et disciplinaires qui y retiennent les services de prêtres de plus en plus nombreux. Je prie instamment les laïc de prendre la relève dans ce domaine. . . la bonne marche d'une semblable institution crée de nos jours des obligations qui, de par leur nature et leur ampleur, ne peuvent plus relever d'un diocèse comme tel. . . la pleine collaboration du clergé reste assurée à la nouvelle direction, en tout premier lieu dans le tâches d'enseignement religieux et de direction spirituelle.

41. Le clergé (québécois) est heureux de remettre aux laïcs le contrôle de l'enseignement classique. . . . Nous ne demandons pas mieux que de remettre tout ce contrôle aux laïcs.

42. Ainsi que nous l'avons annoncé, nous désirons rendre accessible à tous les enfants, quelle que soit leur origine sociale et quelles que soient les ressources financières de leurs familles, l'enseignement conforme à leurs aptitudes et à leur volonté de réaliser leur vocation.

43. Il faut partir du principe que les enfants ont des aptitudes diverses et qu'il ne faut absolument pas les faire passer par le même moule, il faut mettre à la disposition de l'enfant un champ d'options le plus vaste possible en raison même des différences d'aptitudes que chacun d'entre eux manifeste. . . .

45. Que le surintendant retienne une partie des subventions à toute commission scolaire qui autorise ou tolère l'achât par les élèves d'examens commercialisés ou de résumés non autorisés, et qu'il prenne tout autre moyen à sa disposition pour bannir des écoles ces examens commercialisés et ces résumés non autorisés.

48. Les temps changent. Il est significatif que des membres de la Commission Parent insistent qu'une fois "à l'âge adulte, 25% des écoliers actuels devront exercer des fonctions aujourd'hui inconnues." On en déduit que les 75% qui restent, sur le million d'élèves, devront s'intégrer avec autant d'harmonie que possible dans un contexte largement différent de celui que l'on connaît.

Plus que jamais, la seule manière acceptable d'éduquer des élèves est conditionnée par un double objectif: donner aux jeunes une ouverture d'esprit aussi large que possible, et surtout leur apprendre à penser par eux-mêmes.

49. a) Le petit nombre d'élèves cessant de fréquenter l'école après la 7^e année fait maintenant du cours primaire un stage préparatoire à des études plus avancées, et non un tout complet prétendant répondre aux besoins de l'homme appelé à prendre place dans la vie sociale.

L'école primaire, n'étant plus terminale ainsi qu'elle l'était pour beaucoup il y a quelques années, se doit donc de réadapter son programme aux besoins actuels des élèves.

b) Le nombre restreint - sans cesse diminuant - des élèves fréquentant des classes à divisions multiples dans la Province, justifie la préparation d'un programme en vue des classes à division unique.

50. Le programme doit offrir à chaque enfant le maximum auquel il a droit et cela, selon ses talents, ses aptitudes et ses aspirations.

Le programme général est donc un minimum pour l'élève d'un niveau intellectuel moyen, un maximum pour l'élève d'un niveau intellectuel moyen inférieur.

Afin de faciliter l'application intégrale de tels principes, le plan d'études du cours primaire offre les adaptations suivantes:

- a) le programme régulier avec enrichissement pour les élèves d'un niveau intellectuel moyen supérieur, supérieur ou très supérieur;
- b) le programme régulier pour les élèves d'un niveau intellectuel moyen;
- c) le programme régulier avec allégements pour les élèves d'un niveau intellectuel moyen inférieur.

51. Quel que soit le niveau des élèves auxquels il s'adresse, le programme d'études de l'école primaire est conçu de façon à mettre en activité constante les facultés de chacun. Il présente les diverses disciplines de son plan d'études, non pas seulement comme des connaissances à apprendre et à memoriser, mais très souvent comme des problèmes à résoudre et cela, afin de développer des habitudes de travail et les automatismes indispensables à l'épanouissement des puissances individuelles.

Enfin, en tenant compte avant tout de l'enfant tel que les sciences de l'homme et la Révélation nous le font connaître, le programme fait appel à des procédés et à des méthodes:

- a) qui partent de l'observation directe des choses;
- b) qui font comprendre d'abord, apprendre ensuite;
- c) qui forment le caractère et développent la personnalité;
- d) qui favorisent la spontanéité de l'esprit d'initiative;
- e) qui donnent le sens de la responsabilité, prédisposent au bon usage de la liberté et au respect de l'autorité.

52. La commission n'est pas seulement encouragée mais "tenue de mettre en vigueur ce programme d'étude quand le nombre d'élèves Néo-Canadiens le justifie" or la C.E.C.M. compte 15,000 élèves Néo-Canadiens.

53. Les catholiques de langue anglaise de Montréal et principalement les Irlandais entreprennent une autre bataille. Avec l'ardeur qu'on leur connaît ils s'opposent depuis une quinzaine de jours à ce que la C.E.C.M. ouvre des écoles bilingues à l'intention des Néo-Canadiens et

crée au sein de son service des études, une section qui s'occuperait spécialement de ces classes et serait ainsi sur un même pied que les sections françaises et anglaises.

54. Dans les écoles de langue anglaise de la C.E.C.M. seulement le 1/3 sont des Anglo-Canadiens. De plus on sait que les Irlandais maîtrisent la section anglaise de la commission et qu'ils sont les promoteurs de la querelle. . .même s'ils ne représentent que 7.2% de la section. . .plus il y aura d'élèviers dans leurs écoles plus grande sera leur influence!

55. a) Le cours général est de quatre ans; il prépare directement à la vie ou à certaines écoles professionnelles de niveau moyen. . . . Il est destiné à tous les élèves qui, à cause de leurs aptitudes, leurs goûts, leurs conditions familiales ne peuvent pas ou ne veulent pas poursuivre leurs études de formation générale au-delà d'une 11^e année;

b) Le cours commercial. . .prépare à un emploi dès la fin de la 4^e année;

c) Le cours scientifique. . .prépare directement à des études supérieures de niveau collégial et universitaire.

En 10^e et 11^e années, le cours scientifique offre deux options; sciences-mathématiques et sciences-lettres. L'option sciences-mathématiques prépare directement aux écoles et facultés de caractère scientifique, alors que l'option sciences-lettres prépare aux autres écoles et facultés;

d) Le cours classique. . .son programme correspond au programme de l'une ou l'autre des sections classiques approuvées par la Faculté des Arts d'une université catholique de la province.

e) Le cours agricole;. . .prépare immédiatement à la profession d'agriculteur ainsi qu'aux écoles moyennes d'agriculture et à la 10^e année des cours général et commercial.

f) Le cours industriel; a pour objet la préparation d'ouvriers qualifiés, de contremaîtres d'ateliers, etc.

56. Le cours d'arts familiaux est de deux ans; il s'adresse aux élèves qui ont terminé le cours élémentaire et qui désirent se former immédiatement aux vertus et au travail d'une bonne maîtresse de maison. Avec l'autorisation du Surintendant, ou pourra ajouter une troisième année, dite de spécialisation dans l'un ou l'autre des métiers féminins.

57. a) Donner des connaissances de base suffisamment étendues et faire connaître les sources du savoir.

b) Développer une saine curiosité intellectuelle, l'esprit de recherche personnelle et entraîner à d'excellentes méthodes de travail.

c) Amener à déduire et induire avec justesse, apprendre la prudence dans les jugements.

d) Eveiller le sens des responsabilités individuelles, comme homme et comme chrétien. Faire prendre une conscience nette des responsabilités sociales que la Providence attache aux dons particuliers qu'elle distribue.

e) Proposer un idéal chrétien, familial, professionnel et social, capable de susciter, de maintenir d'ardents et de puissants désirs.

f) Soutenir dans la poursuite de cet idéal et permettre l'apprentissage progressif de la liberté sous la vigilante confiance de maîtres compréhensifs.

58. Afin de bien respecter les exigences psychologiques et pédagogiques de l'adaptation de l'éducation et de l'enseignement aux garçons et aux filles, l'école secondaire doit, en principe, être distincte pour l'une et l'autre catégories d'élèves. Cependant, lorsque les conditions locales l'exigent, une école de garçons et une école de filles pourront être contiguës. Dans ce cas, les locaux seront le plus possible séparés et adaptés à la psychologie féminine et masculine, selon le cas. Les locaux communs seront limités au strict minimum imposé par les circonstances. Le tableau ci-dessous décrit l'organisation générale de deux écoles contiguës de 16 classes chacune.

59. Bon gré mal gré, la Commission des Ecoles catholiques de Montréal sera vraisemblablement obligée d'offrir un cours collégial à compter de septembre 1964.

Les collèges classiques de la région de Montréal ont avisé la C.E.C.M. qu'en septembre 1964, ils ne pourront plus recevoir dans leurs classes de belles-lettres les finissants des sections classiques de la commission, et ce, faute de places disponibles.

Dès lors, la commission sera moralement tenue d'offrir un cours collégial parce qu'elle n'aura pas le droit de laisser tomber ces élèves.

61. Le rythme de l'engagement des institutions d'enseignement du Québec vis-à-vis ce service dépasse même celui qu'ont expérimenté, au cours de ces dernières années, les services analogues des différents pays qui en bénéficient.

Déjà quelque 650 commissions scolaires utilisent ce nouveau service dans quelque 20,000 classes groupant au-delà de 400,000 élèves à travers toute la province: depuis Chapais, situé à 200 milles de la baie James, jusqu'aux Iles-de-la-Madeleine, dans le golfe St-Laurent. Et ces chiffres ne sont que ceux fournis par les commissions scolaires: ils n'incluent pas, en effet les institutions indépendantes. . . . De plus, il convient de souligner que des milliers de parents, ont demandé la documentation concernant ces émissions scolaires.

62. Les séries régulières de l'an prochain devraient être considérées comme le prolongement de ces expériences; car la question est d'une telle complexité qu'il serait téméraire de nous engager immédiatement dans une orientation définitive. . . ne visent pas à remplacer les maîtres, mais constituent plutôt un stimulant dans les cadres des programmes d'étude et des leçons traditionnelles. . . les émissions soient mises à la disposition de toutes les commissions scolaires et des institutions indépendantes de la province. . . . Les disciplines qui formeront la matière des émissions de l'année 1962-1963 soient les suivantes: connaissances usuelles au niveau de la 6^e année. . . physique au niveau de la 1^{re} année. . . . Les services d'un éducateur devraient être retenus pour préparer. . . conseiller. . . évaluer chaque série. . . des émissions . . . soit créé sans délai un service d'émissions scolaires.

64. M. Jean-Marie Massé, du bureau des recherches de la C.E.C.M., souligne qu'il a reçu un grand nombre de demandes d'écoles françaises qui veulent qu'une de leurs classes communique ainsi avec une classe canadienne-française. . . .

Les échanges Paris-Montréal ont été tellement nombreux et le matériel recueilli tellement intéressant, qu'il fut décidé de les exposer à l'école St-Charles-Garnier.

66. Ce qui compte par-dessus tout dans l'enseignement, c'est la formation des maîtres. On l'a dit cent fois, on ne le répétera jamais trop: les plus beaux programmes d'études, les plus ingénieux ponts de communication entre les divers degrés de l'enseignement, les rapports les plus intelligents sur la coordination de l'enseignement primaire, secondaire et universitaire, tout cela ne vaut absolument rien, pas même le papier sur lequel il est écrit, sans la formation des maîtres, sans la compétence des maîtres. Tout est là. C'est le noeud, le fond du problème; c'est la question primordiale. Donnez-moi de bons maîtres, bien formés, cultivés et enthousiastes, je me fiche des programmes d'études et les bons manuels scolaires suivront infailliblement. Mais aussi longtemps qu'on n'aura pas attaqué et résolu le problème No. 1, qui est celui de la formation des maîtres, on gaspille ses énergies.

67. Le problème fondamental, c'est la formation du personnel enseignant.

C'est au niveau des écoles normales qu'il faudra fournir le plus grand effort.

Il faudra insister sur le recrutement, sur la formation et sur le salaire des instituteurs. Il faudra aussi leur proposer d'autres attraits pour que la carrière d'instituteur devienne aussi digne et aussi intéressante que les autres professions dites libérales.

68. Ce n'est pas que nous manquions d'écoles normales chez nous. Loin de là! En fait, nous en avons même beaucoup trop, environ 120; il y en a même plus ici qu'en France, où pourtant la population est de 44,000,000 d'âmes, la nôtre n'étant que 5,000,000. Pour des raisons d'ordre économique, politique, régionaliste, patriotique, sentimental, on les a trop multipliées; on a insisté beaucoup plus sur le nombre que sur la qualité.

69. Dès la présente année scolaire, on peut discerner une réorientation de l'esprit même de l'école: l'expérimentation, devenue possible, permet à l'étudiant d'intégrer ses études à la vie, de joindre la pratique à la théorie. . . . Une conception nouvelle, plus positive, préside aux stages d'enseignement pratique. . . .

L'expérience que vit cette année l'Ecole normale Jacques-Cartier nous porte à penser que l'étudiant autant que le professeur ont besoin d'un minimum "vital" d'espace et de moyens pour s'épanouir.

75. Toutes ces données démontrent d'une façon évidente que les instituteurs et les institutrices ont généralement l'ambition d'acquérir des qualifications supérieures et entretiennent le souci de devenir de

plus en plus compétents dans leur profession. L'intérêt qu'ils manifestent à leur avancement culturel constitue, pour le Département de l'Instruction publique et les institutions d'enseignement supérieur, un encouragement à continuer leurs efforts pour favoriser le perfectionnement des éducateurs.

76. Par concours officiels décernement de 300 bourses par année d'une valeur de \$1,200. à 3,500. pour aider au recrutement et à la formation du personnel enseignant et attirer dans le domaine de l'enseignement l'élite des diplômes. Ces bourses sont renouvelables pour 3 ou 4 ans.

77. Montréal accordera cette année des bourses d'études d'une valeur totale de \$135,000 à 18 membres de son personnel enseignant. Cette somme ne comprend pas les cours de perfectionnement de groupes, qui coûtent cette année \$33,000.

Les instituteurs et institutrices intéressés pourront se porter candidats à l'un ou l'autre des bourses en sciences religieuses, en lettres, en sciences, en administration scolaire, et en éducation préscolaire.

78. Depuis une quarantaine d'années la province distribue des bourses aux jeunes gens qui veulent aller se perfectionner. . .mais jusqu'à cette année aucun règlement n'avait été établi pour déterminer la façon dont les boursiers devaient être choisis. . . .Les dossiers des candidats étaient remarquables par la quantité de recommandations politiques qu'on y trouvait.

79. Ce déni de justice privait depuis treize ans environ quinze mille titulaires des centres ruraux d'un moyen (devenu un droit universellement reconnu) sans lequel l'exercice du droit fondamental d'association est devenu illusoire. Ce droit à l'arbitrage est absolument indispensable dans un contexte de négociation généralisée de conventions collectives de travail, puisqu'il constitue la sanction au refus de négocier en toute bonne foi.

80. Le droit à l'arbitrage est reconnu dans ce bill à tous les instituteurs des municipalités rurales, pourvu qu'ils obtiennent l'autorisation du Conseil d'administration de la Corporation. Dans les circonstances psychologiques et administratives actuelles--qu'on songe à l'émettement des commissions scolaires et, par voie de conséquence, à l'éparpillement des syndicats ou sections qui détiennent des certificats de reconnaissance en vue de négocier--il faut reconnaître de la sagesse à cette limitation.

81. Selon un sondage effectué au sein du Conseil général, à sa session du 28 décembre, la très grande majorité, pour ne pas dire la quasi unanimité, des instituteurs et institutrices de la province ont accueilli très favorablement l'application de la loi décrétant l'adhésion automatique à la Corporation des Instituteurs. . .seulement 53 titulaires avaient, à ce jour, signifié leur opposition à cette adhésion et leur intention conséquente de démissionner.

82. La C.E.C.M. et l'Alliance des Professeurs ont signé avant-hier un contrat de 2 ans. C'est la première fois depuis la grève mémorable de 1948 que les parties se mettent d'accord. Rappeler les événements qui se sont déroulés depuis 12 ans serait faire l'énumération d'une longue suite de gestes regrettables. . . . Au moment où les choses se gâtaient définitivement entre l'Alliance et la C.E.C.M., un personnage important de la direction des études nous confiait: "Si on nous laissait faire l'affaire pourrait être réglée en 24 heures." . . . Affirmer que la politique a gâté la sauce n'est pas une médisance ni un jugement téméraire. La vindicte de M. Duplessis s'est fait sentir là comme dans plusieurs domaines et elle a créé un climat de discorde qui ne pouvait prendre fin qu'avec la disparition du triste personnage. Douze années de perdues en querelles stupides, c'est assez pour nous faire toucher du doigt une fois de plus, combien les travers de ce vieux garçon capricieux ont été néfastes à la province de Québec.

83. Les architectes et les dessinateurs ont préparé une première esquisse de l'école. Ce premier ensemble a été "épluché" salle par salle, service par service par MM. les commissaires et les directions d'école. En même temps des visites étaient faites pour étudier dans des écoles déjà existantes les avantages et les desiderata notés par le personnel enseignant.

Ce travail préliminaire obligea le bureau. . . à une deuxième esquisse. Ce fut ensuite le tour du personnel enseignant religieux et laïque. . . . Pendant ces heures nombreuses les Commissaires, les Principaux et les professeurs travaillaient d'un même accord à rendre la nouvelle école fonctionnelle.

85. Parce qu'il a refusé d'admettre le fiston de tel commissaire dans la chorale de l'école. . . ou encore que l'institutrice n'a pas daigné aller danser aux "veillées" du rang 6. . . le renvoi d'instituteur avec plusieurs années de service et leur remplacement par des confrères plus jeunes, à qui on offre des salaires moins élevés. . . parce qu'il a organisé une association d'instituteurs.

86. Comment un instituteur peut-il, dans son milieu, jouir du prestige qui doit être le sien, exercer toute son autorité, quand il sent que, pour protéger son emploi, il doit éviter de déplaire à l'un ou l'autre des membres de la commission scolaire! Quel enthousiasme peut-il mettre à son travail d'éducateur quand il ne sait pas ce que lui réserve le lendemain? Doit-il tolérer les frasques ou l'indiscipline du fils du commissaire au détriment de ses autres élèves? Les années d'expérience accumulées ne risquent-elles pas de le condamner à s'expatrier, parce que la commission scolaire, pour diminuer les dépenses, voudra recourir aux services d'instituteurs et d'institutrices moins âgés à qui on paiera un salaire moins élevé? Ce serait, la pratique utilisée dans plusieurs centres de la province. On pourrait multiplier les inconvenients et les abus auxquels peut prêter une stricte application de l'article 232 du Code scolaire.

87. Cependant, lorsqu'il s'agit d'un instituteur qu'ils ont réengagé après huit mois de services ou plus dans chacune des deux années scolaires précédentes, il doivent, sur sa demande écrite et personnelle, lui donner par écrit les raisons qui motivent leur décision.

Aucun droit d'action ne découle des raisons ainsi données de bonne foi mais l'instituteur peut soumettre son grief à l'arbitrage suivant la convention collective régissant les parties ou, à défaut de telle convention ou si elle n'y pourvoit pas, suivant la Loi concernant les corporations municipales et scolaires et leurs employés (13 George VI, chap. 26).

88. Du point de vue administratif, la Fédération des commissions scolaires catholiques du Québec ne voit aucune objection aux normes que vient de fixer le ministère de la jeunesse concernant le nombre d'élèves par classe et le nombre de périodes d'enseignement qu'on doit confier à un instituteur.

89. L'Etat ne peut éviter l'obligation de justifier, tant devant les Chambres que devant la population, un sain emploi du budget, un rendement maximum du système joint à un maximum d'efficacité. . . . Nous avons réussi, du moins nous l'espérons, une chose extrêmement importante: celle de dégager le Ministre de la machine administrative pour en faire l'arbitre des parties en cas de conflit entre l'administratif et l'académique.

Les nouvelles normes ne sont en somme qu'un calcul mathématique de dollars. Elles ne tiennent pas suffisamment compte de la surcharge inacceptable imposée aux professeurs.

90. De ce "différend au sujet des normes" il importe de dégager quelques leçons.

1. L'autorité provinciale qui contrôle le financement de l'éducation a le droit d'établir des normes générales d'utilisation des locaux et d'emploi du personnel afin de prévenir les abus dans les administrations régionales et locales et en vue d'assurer le meilleur rendement des ressources, financières et humaines, du milieu.

2. Ces normes toutefois devraient être fort souples et ne sauraient être établies sans consulter les intéressés, notamment les commissions scolaires et les syndicats d'instituteurs. . . .

3. Le contrôle financier, s'il ne sait rester dans ses limites, devient vite ingérence dans l'administration scolaire, et même dans la direction pédagogique. . . .

4. En éducation, le bien des enfants prime toute autre considération. Aussi les exigences financières doivent-elles céder devant les exigences de la pédagogie et de l'administration pédagogique. . . .

5. L'éducation au Québec exige surtout une politique des ensembles, une vigoureuse planification hiérarchisée et concertée, dans laquelle la primauté aille aux hommes sur les choses, aux enfants et aux professeurs sur les bâtiments et le mobilier. Economie certes, mais pas au prix de la qualité de l'éducation.

91. Fournit des explications supplémentaires sur le sens et la portée des indications contenues dans la circulaire du 12 mars. De plus, elle corrige des interprétations variées et parfois, trop restrictives, qu'on avait données dans plusieurs milieux. . . .

La nouvelle circulaire annonce l'organisation d'un comité d'étude qui permettra de poursuivre les recherches nécessaires sur l'organisation des écoles et des classes. Ce comité consultatif conjoint sera composé de la même façon que celui qui a préparé la nouvelle circulaire. Il comptera donc des représentants des administrateurs et des éducateurs. . . . Sa mission principale, a précisé le premier ministre consistera à analyser les résultats de la mise en application des normes proposées et à aviser les autorités sur les autres mesures à prendre pour obtenir une meilleure affectation du personnel enseignant et des locaux scolaires.

Il s'agit là d'une expérience sans précédent dans notre milieu, (expérience) au cours de laquelle les groupes d'éducateurs et d'administrateurs seront directement appelés à collaborer à la solution des problèmes extrêmement complexes que souleve l'aménagement de notre système scolaire sur une base rationnelle et efficace.

92. En somme, pour l'année scolaire 1963-1964, il faudrait en arriver, autant que possible, à ce que, dans les écoles secondaires comptant suffisamment d'élèves et ayant au moins quatre degrés (8^e à 11^e), le nombre de membres du personnel enseignant soit de trois par deux classe et par 65 élèves.

93. En recommandant ces nominations, Son Eminence le Cardinal Léger fraye la voie à une plus large participation du laïcat au directeurat de ces importantes maisons de formation.

On se rappellera que Son Eminence a, le printemps dernier, prononcé une plus large représentation du laïcat dans l'enseignement secondaire et supérieur: le précédent auquel nous applaudissons aujourd'hui s'inscrit logiquement dans cette ligne de pensée.

Nous est-il permis de souhaiter que cette initiative de Son Eminence ait des imitateurs.

94. Considérant le nombre restreint de religieuses disponibles pour ces écoles primaires; souhaitant, d'autre part, conserver au moins une partie de notre apostolat dans les écoles paroissiales, nous vous offrons, pour chacune de ces deux écoles, quatre religieuses-institutrices, qui accepteraient volontiers--sous une direction laïque--de collaborer en tout point à l'œuvre éducative de ces institutions.

95. Le gouvernement actuel se préoccupe au plus haut point de la revalorisation de la carrière professorale, il l'a d'ailleurs manifesté . . . une telle revalorisation doit s'effectuer sur deux plans:

1. D'abord sur le plan de la qualification du personnel enseignant; c'est dans cette perspective que des bourses spéciales ont été créées pour faciliter la formation universitaire du personnel enseignant.

2. Elle doit aussi s'effectuer sur le plan des conditions de travail des professeurs en particulier en ce qui concerne les traitements appropriés à la fonction enseignante. . . . Dès l'automne dernier de

nouvelles échelles de salaire ont été mises en vigueur pour les professeurs d'écoles normales et les inspecteurs d'écoles. . . secteurs qui relèvent directement de l'administration du Ministère. . . . Le temps est maintenant venu de poursuivre la réalisation de la même politique en ce qui concerne les instituteurs au service des commissions scolaires, il existe des disparités considérables présentement d'une région à une autre dans les salaires payés. . . voilà pourquoi je suis autorisé par le conseil des ministres à former un comité conjoint, C.I.C., F.C.S.C.P.Q. et ministère.

96. Les instituteurs ont droit à des traitements de professionnels: l'enseignement n'est pas un quelconque gagne-pain. Il est une profession qui exige une certaine liberté à l'égard des soucis quotidiens pour que l'esprit puisse plus facilement s'adonner à des tâches essentielles.

APPENDIX B

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE FIRST PART OF THE PARENT COMMISSION

- (1) We recommend the appointment of a Minister of Education, whose function shall be to promote and co-ordinate educational services at all levels, including the private and public sectors.
- (2) We recommend the creation of a superior Council of Education whose function shall be to advise the Minister.
- (3) We recommend that the Superior Council of Education act as a unified body.
- (4) We recommend that a Ministry of Education be established by merging the Department of Education and the Ministry of Youth.
- (5) We recommend that all teaching services at present connected with other departments or ministries be placed under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education.
- (6) We recommend that the Civil Service Commission take all necessary measures to attract to the Ministry of Education personnel of the very highest competence.
- (7) We recommend that there be in the Ministry of Education an Associate Deputy Minister of the Protestant faith.
- (8) We recommend that the Minister be required to proceed by means of Regulations in dealing with the following matters: (1) programmes of study, examination standards, official diplomas; (2) qualifications of teaching personnel.
- (9) We suggest that the services of the Ministry of Education be grouped in three divisions, each headed by a Director General: The Division of Instruction, The Division of Administration, the Division of Planning.
- (10) We suggest that the Division of Instruction include the following services:
 - (a) Curriculum Service--1. Elementary and secondary Roman Catholic Education; 2. Elementary and secondary Protestant education; 3. Teacher education; 4. Technical and specialized education; 5. Adult education; 6. Educational research.
 - (b) Supervisory Service--1. Inspection and examinations, Roman Catholic education; 2. Inspection and examinations, Protestant education; 3. Inspection and Examinations, technical and specialized education; 4. Inspection and examinations, adult

education; 5. Inspection and examinations, children; 6. Audio-visual education; 7. Physical and health education; 8. Education for leisure; 9. Guidance and psychological services; 10. School libraries.

- (c) Teaching Personnel Service--1. Qualification and certification of teaching personnel for schools; 2. Management of teaching personnel in government-operated schools; 3. In-service training, teacher status, pension funds, etc.
- (11) We suggest that the Division of Administration include the following services:
 - (a) School Commission Service.
 - (b) Service for schools under the Ministry.
 - (c) Higher Education service.
 - (d) Primary and Secondary Private Schools Service.
 - (e) Adult Education Service.
 - (f) Educational Finance Service.
 - (g) School Building and Pupil Transportation Service.
 - (h) Auxiliary Services: Management of administrative personnel, legal staff, etc.
- (12) We suggest that the Division of Planning include the following services:
 - (a) Educational Statistics Service.
 - (b) Location of Institutions Service.
 - (c) Information service.
- (13) We suggest that as quickly as possible all services of the three divisions of the Ministry of Education be located within a single building.
- (14) We recommend that the higher officials of the Ministry of Education be bi-lingual.
- (15) We suggest a complete revision of all laws concerning education.
- (16) We recommend that the Superior Council of Education be composed of sixteen members, appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor in council for an eight-year term, without provision for re-appointment.
- (17) We recommend that the President and the Vice-President of the Superior Council of Education be chosen by the Lieutenant-Governor in Council from among the sixteen members of the Council and that one be a Roman Catholic and the other a Protestant.
- (18) We recommend that the President and the Vice-President of the Superior Council of Education be appointed for a five-year term, which may not be renewed, and that they devote at least half of their time to the work of the Council.

- (19) We recommend that the Deputy Minister and the Associate Deputy Minister of Education be associate members of the Superior Council of Education, without the right to vote, and that they place at the disposal of the Council any information and such services of the Ministry as the Council may require.
- (20) We recommend the establishment of a Roman Catholic Committee and a Protestant committee, each composed of from nine to fifteen members, to make regulations, subject to the approval of the Lieutenant-Governor in council, concerning the teaching of religion and morals, to assure the religious character of the schools, and to offer suggestions to the Council on problems which may arise when teaching certain subjects.
- (21) We recommend that the Roman Catholic Committee be composed of an equal number of representatives of the religious authorities, of parents, and of educators, appointed for a three-year term with one reappointment permissible; that the representatives of the religious authorities be named by the assembled Bishops of the Province, and the others by the Superior Council of Education after consultation with the assembled Bishops and with associations of parents and educators.
- (22) We recommend that the Protestant Committee be composed of an equal number of representatives of the Protestant Churches, of parents, and of educators, appointed for a three-year term, with one reappointment permissible, by the Council after consultation with the groups concerned.
- (23) We recommend the establishment of a Commission for Elementary and Secondary Education, of a Commission for Higher education, and of a Commission for Technical and Specialized Education, each composed of from nine to fifteen members, charged with making suggestions to the Superior Council of Education with regard to any question concerning their areas of responsibility.
- (24) We recommend that the members of the Commissions be appointed by the Superior Council of Education for a three-year term, with one reappointment permissible, after consultation with the groups concerned.
- (25) We recommend that the Chairmen of each of the two Committees and of each of the three Commissions be members of the Superior Council of Education and be appointed by the latter, the Chairman of the Roman Catholic Committee to be chosen after consultation with the assembled Bishops.
- (26) We recommend that Members of the Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Council, persons not resident in the Province of Quebec, and persons more than seventy years of age shall not be appointed or remain as members of the Superior Council of Education or of its Committees and Commissions.

(27) We recommend that the Council have the following duties:

- (a) To give its judgment on all questions which the Minister is obliged to submit to it, namely: teaching programmes, examination standards, and official diplomas; qualifying standards for teaching personnel; plans for locating and establishing educational institutions;
- (b) To submit to the Minister any advice and recommendation it sees fit on all questions which can affect education in the Province;
- (c) To give its advice on questions which the Minister may submit to it;
- (d) To receive and study petitions and suggestions submitted by the public, investigate them, and, if need be, make recommendations to the Minister;
- (e) To prepare, for submission to the legislature, an annual report on the state and the needs of education in the Province.

(28) We recommend that the Directors General of the Ministry of Education attend the regular meetings of the Committees and Commissions of the Superior Council of Education in order to ensure the necessary collaboration between these Committees and Commissions and the Ministry.

(29) We recommend that there be two joint Secretaries of the Superior Council of Education and that they have the same rank and the same remuneration as the three Directors General of the Ministry.

(30) We recommend that at meetings of the Council, everyone may have the right to speak in English or in French, and that each member of the Council be able to follow a discussion in whichever of these languages is not his mother tongue.

(31) We recommend that the Superior Council of Education meet at least once a month, and that it have the right to sit in Quebec, in Montreal, and in any other centres of the Province.

(32) We recommend that the Committees and Commissions of the Superior Council of Education meet at least four times annually, and that they have the right to sit in any centre of the Province.

(33) We recommend that the Superior Council of Education have a budget distinct from that of the Ministry, as well as its own secretariat and an adequate personnel.

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